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ART. I. *The History of the Manners, Landed Property, Government, Laws, Poetry, Literature, Religion, and Language of the Anglo-Saxons.* By Sharon Turner, F.A.S. Vol. IV. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

IT has been often objected to History, that it is chiefly occupied with the schemes of the disturbers and the atchievements of the destroyers of mankind; and that it does not condescend particularly to notice the state and circumstances under which the great mass of the people have existed, at the different periods of which it professes to treat. This remark, however, will not apply to the work before us, which forms a most interesting supplement to Mr. Turner's History of the Anglo-Saxons *, and will afford much pleasing information to those who are desirous of investigating the customs, manners, and attainments of our remote ancestors; while it also traces to their origin those principles of law and government which have operated, with the progress of knowlege and civilization, to the formation of the British Constitution and character. The reader must be aware that the farther the historian extends his glance to the early days of our progenitors, the less clear will be his view; and that we ought to expect from him rather sketches and rough outlines than a finished picture. It is praiseworthy in Mr. Turner, that he does not attempt to satisfy extravagant curiosity; that he does not present phantoms for realities; and that he no where exaggerates facts, nor deduces conclusions which they do not warrant. The result of his laborious inquiries is given with care, and with accuracy; and in detailing subjects which have furnished matter for warm controversy, he has discarded theory, and has suffered documents to speak for themselves:

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* For our account of the former volumes, see M. R. Vol. xxxiii. N. S. p. 293. and Vol. xl. N. S. p. 272.

'The great object of the work (he states) has always been to preserve those interesting particulars concerning our Anlgo-Saxon ancestors which had been left unnoticed in their ancient MSS., and to throw light where it was possible on those parts of their history which had been usually deemed confused and obscure. To fulfil these purposes, I have examined every MS. and author within my reach which promised to be useful. I have been scrupulous to insert no circumstance without a sufficient authority, and it has been always important to me that my quotations should be faithful.'

As a kind of introduction to the History of the Manners, Government, Laws, Literature, Arts, Religion, and Language of the Anglo-Saxons, we are presented with a short account of the Saxons in their pagan state. 'As, however, (says Mr. Turner,) the converted Anglo-Saxon remembered the practices of his idolatrous ancestors with too much abhorrence to record them for the notice of future ages, and as we have no runic spells to call the pagan warrior from his grave, we can only see him in those imperfect sketches which patient industry may collect from the passages that are scattered in the works which time has spared.' These evidences prove him to have been active and fearless, ferocious and predatory. The continental Saxons, in the eighth and preceding centuries, lived under an aristocracy of chieftains, without a king or supreme head, except in case of war, when they appointed a temporary chief; and at the time of their invasion of England, they were under war-kings, who were continued till a limited monarchy was established. Among them four orders existed, viz. the Etheling or noble; the free-man; the freed-man; and the servile.

The objects of Saxon adoration are still preserved in our names for the days of the week; and some persons will be surprised to hear that the term *Easter*, which is yet retained to express the season of our great pascal solemnity, is derived from *Eostre*, one of the goddesses worshipped by our savage ancestors; who certainly offered human sacrifices to their idols.

Though it has been doubted whether the Saxons had the use of letters when they possessed themselves of England, reasons may be offered to make it probable that they were not then unacquainted with alphabetic writing: yet none of their compositions remain; and it is supposed by the present historian that their alphabetic characters, if they possessed any, were chiefly used for divinations, charms, and funeral inscriptions.

Having in the first book taken a view of those fierce, idolatrous, and cruel pirates who possessed themselves of the south part of this island during the fifth and sixth centuries, and having portrayed them as they existed in the North of Germany,

Germany, Mr. Turner follows them into the country which they invaded, and notices the improvements which have been made in the intellectual and moral qualities of a people whose character was so unpromising:

'From such ancestors a nation has, in the course of twelve centuries, been formed, which, inferior to none in every moral and intellectual merit, is superior to every other in the love and possession of useful liberty: a nation which cultivates with equal success the elegancies of art, the ingenious labours of industry, the energies of war, the researches of science, and the richest productions of genius.'

It is concluded, with much probability, that the first step to the improvement of the invading Saxons was derived from their intercourse with a people who had been for a considerable period obedient to the Roman Government; and that, as the conquered Greeks had softened the Romans, so the conquered Britons ameliorated the Saxons. A farther change was produced in them by their conversion to Christianity.

Under the head of *Manners*, distinct chapters are assigned to Infancy,—Education,—Food,—Drinks and Cookery,—Dress,—Houses, Furniture, and Luxuries,—Conviviality and Amusements,—Marriages,—Classes and Condition of Society,—Gilds or Clubs,—Trades, Mechanical Arts, and foreign Commerce,—Money,—Chivalry,—Superstitions,—and Funerals. From this enumeration, it will be apparent that Mr. Turner's account of the social state of the Anglo-Saxons is not desultory; and as specimens of the mode in which he has executed his undertaking, we shall make a few short extracts from this part of the work. The chapter relative to their houses, furniture, and luxuries, proves that, soon after their reception of Christianity, they grew more refined and luxurious than we their descendants are apt to imagine:

'The Anglo-Saxons had many conveniences and luxuries which men so recently emerging from the barbarian state could not have derived from their own invention. They were indebted for these to their conversion to Christianity. When the Gothic nations exchanged their idolatry for the Christian faith, hierarchies arose in every converted state, which maintained a close and perpetual intercourse with Rome and with each other. From the letters of Pope Gregory, of our Boniface, and many others, we perceive that an intercourse of personal civilities, visits, messages, and presents, was perpetually taking place. Whatever that was rare, curious, or valuable, which one person possessed, he communicated, and not unfrequently gave to his acquaintance. This is very remarkable in the letters of Boniface and his friends, of whom some were in England, some in France, some in Germany, and elsewhere. The most cordial phrases of urbanity and affection are usually followed by a present of apparel, the aromatic productions of the east, little articles of fur-

niture and domestic comfort, books, and whatever else promised to be acceptable to the person addressed. This reciprocity of liberality, and the perpetual visits which all ranks of the state were in the habit of making to Rome, the seat and centre of all the arts, science, wealth, and industry of the day, occasioned a general diffusion and use of the known conveniences and approved inventions which had then appeared.'

To the institutions of our Saxon ancestors, the fair sex are indebted for the superior rank which they hold in European society, compared with that which ladies enjoy in the east. After having explained the provisions made by the *morgen gift* (or matrimonial settlement) for the wife among the Anglo-Saxons, Mr. Turner remarks:

'Nothing could be more calculated to produce a very striking dissimilarity between the Gothic nations and the Oriental states, than this exaltation of the female sex to that honour, consequence, and independence, which European laws studied to uphold. As the education of youth will always rest principally with women in the most ductile part of life, it is of the greatest importance that the fair sex should possess high rank and estimation in society, and nothing could more certainly tend to perpetuate this feeling than the privilege of possessing property in their own right, and at their own disposal.

'That the Anglo-Saxon ladies both inherited and disposed of property as they pleased, appears from many instances: a wife is mentioned who devised land by her will, with the consent of her husband, in his lifetime. We read also of land which a wife had sold in her husband's life. We frequently find wives the parties to a sale of land, and still oftener we read of estates given to women, or devised by men of affluence to their wives. Widows selling property is also a common occurrence; so is the incident of women devising it. That they inherited land is also clear, for a case is mentioned wherein there being no male heir the estate went to a female. Women appear as tenants in capite in Doomsday.'

In the chapter on the Classes and Conditions of Society, we perceive that the annexation of political privileges to landed property is of antient date; and that the improvements which were afterward introduced were in accordance with the original principle:

'The birth that was thought illustrious conferred personal honour, but no political rank or power. No title was attached to it which descended by heirship and gave a perpetuity of political privileges. That was a later improvement. In theoretical reasoning, and in the eye of religion, the distinction of birth seems to be an unjust prejudice; we have all one common ancestor, and the same Creator, protector, and judge; but the morality and merit of society is the product of very complicated and diversified motives, and is never so superabundant as to suffer uninjured the loss of any one of its incentives

centives and supports. The fame of an applauded ancestor has stimulated many to perform noble actions, or to preserve an honourable character, and will continue so to operate while human nature exists. It creates a sentiment of honour, a dread of disgrace, an useful pride of name, which, though not universally efficient, will frequently check the vicious propensities of passion or selfishness, when reason or religion has exhorted in vain. The distinction of birth may be therefore added to the exaltation of the female sex as another of those peculiarities, which have tended to extract from the barbarism of the Gothic nations a far nobler character than any that the rich climates of the east could rear.

'That there was a nobility from landed property distinct from that of birth, attainable by every one, and possessing (what noble birth had not of itself) political rank and immunities, is very often clear from several passages. It is mentioned in the laws, as an incentive to proper actions, that through God's gift a servile thræl may become a thane, and a ceorl, an eorl, just as a singer may become a priest, and a bocere (a writer) a bishop. In the time of Ethelstan it is expressly declared, that if a ceorle have the full proprietorship of five hides of his own land, a church, and kitchen, a bell-house, a burhgate-seat, and an appropriate office in the king's hall, he shall thenceforth be a thegen or thane by right. The same laws provide that a thegen may arrive at the dignity of an eorl, and that a massere, or merchant, who went three times over sea with his own craft, might become a thegen. But the most curious passage on this subject is that which attests, that without the possession of a certain quantity of landed property the dignity of sitting in the witena-gemot could not be enjoyed, not even though the person was noble already. An abbot of Ely had a brother who was courting the daughter of a great man, but the lady refused him because, although noble, he had not the lordship of forty hides, and therefore could not be numbered among the proceres or witena. To enable him to gratify his love and her ambition, the abbot conveyed to him certain lands belonging to his monastery. The nuptials took place, and the fraud was for some time undiscovered.

'The principle of distinguishing men by their property is also established in the laws. Thus we read of twyhyndum, of syxhyndum, and of twelfhyndum men. A twyhynde man was level in his were with a ceorle, and a twelfhynde with a thegen. But though property might confer distinction, yet it was the possession of landed property which raised a man to those titles which might be called ennobling. Hence it is mentioned, that though a ceorle should attain to a helmet, mail, and a gold-hilted sword, yet if he had no land he must still remain a ceorle.'

It must not, however, be forgotten that a large proportion of the Saxon population was in a state of slavery: but, through the influence of Christianity, which mildly attempered the feelings of the individual, the custom of manumission began to prevail; and thus the benevolent spirit of the Gospel powerfully contributed to the amelioration of general society. It

was not in this instance only that the religion embraced by the Anglo-Saxons contributed to their improvement. The fortunate connection, which Christianity established between the Clergy of Europe, favoured the advancement of the mechanical arts, and opened the door to traffic and the exchange of commodities. To the Roman ecclesiastics Mr. T. ascribes the introduction of coined money among the Anglo-Saxons, and he founds this belief on the expression which they applied to coin. 'This was *mynet*, a coin, and from this, *mynetian*, to coin, and *mynetere*, a person coining. These words are obviously the Latin *moneta* and *monetarius;* and it usually happens that when one nation borrows such a term from another, they are indebted to the same source for the knowlege of the thing which it designates.'

Gold, the author is inclined to believe, was used among these people in an uncoined state; and according to his etymology of the word shilling *, it is probable that silver was originally employed as a medium of exchange in the same way. The Saxon coinage, however, is a dark subject; and Mr. Turner cannot bring his mind to a decisive judgment.

Many curious particulars are related in the Book on Landed Property. It is known that the most essential parts of what is called the Feudal System prevailed among the Anglo-Saxons and that the modes of inheritance called *gavel kind* and *borough-english* descended from them: but it appears that they had no prescribed form of words for the conveyance of a freehold estate, and that their then deeds had no wax-seals, which were introduced at the Norman conquest. We might conclude from the documents belonging to the Anglo-Saxons, in which different kinds of property are described, that England was formerly blessed with a more genial climate than it at present enjoys; since in these writings *a vineyard* is not unfrequently mentioned.

As a proof of the duration of the names of places, we shall make a quotation from the chapter containing particulars on this subject:

'The local denominations by which the various places in England are now known seem to have been principally imposed by our Anglo-Saxon ancestors. Most of them, in their composition, betray their Saxon origin; and whoever will take the trouble to compare the names in Doomsday-book, which prevailed in the island during the

'* The etymology of the word scyllinga would lead us to suppose it to have been a certain quantity of uncoined silver; for whether we derive it from ꝩcylan to divide, or ꝩceale, a scale, the idea presented to us by either word is the same; that is, so much silver cut off, as in China, and weighing so much.'

time of the Confessor, with the present appellations of the same places, will find that the greatest number of them correspond. The hundreds in the county of Sussex were sixty-three, and still remain so: of these, thirty-eight bore the same names as now; and of the villæ or maneria, which are about three hundred and forty-five, there are two hundred and thirty with appellations like their present.

'The following list will shew the correspondencies between the ancient and modern names of the counties which occur in Doomsday-book:

Chenth.	Midelsexe.
Sudsexe.	Hertfordscire.
Sudrie.	Bockinghamscire.
Hantescire:	Oxenefordscire.
Berrochescire,	Glowecesterscire.
or	Wirecesterscire.
Berchescire.	Herefordscire.
Wiltescire.	Grentebrigescire.
Dorsete.	Huntedunscire.
Sumersete.	Bedefordscire.
Devenescire.	Northantonescire.
Cornvalgie.	Ledescestrescire.
Warwicscire.	Roteland.
Staffordscire.	Eurvicscire.
Sciropescire.	Lincolescire.
Cestrescire.	Exsessa.
Derbyscire.	Nordfolc.
Snotinghamscire.	Sudfolc.

'London is mentioned in Bede as the metropolis of the East Saxons in the year 604, lying on the banks of the Thames, "the emporium of many people coming by sea and land."

On the interesting subject of the Government of the Anglo-Saxons, we highly approve the manner in which Mr. Turner has made his report. Speaking of the dignity and prerogatives of the *cyning* or king, he observes that

'All the prerogatives and rights of the Anglo-Saxon cyning were definite and ascertained. They were such as had become established by law or custom, and could be as little exceeded by the sovereign as withheld by his people. They were not arbitrary privileges of an unknown extent. Even William the Conqueror found it necessary to have an official survey of the royal rights taken in every part of the kingdom; and we find the hundred, or similar bodies in every county, making the inquisition to the king's commissioners, who returned to the sovereign that minute record of his claims upon his subjects, which constitutes the Domesday-book. The royal claims in Domesday book were, therefore, not the arbitrary impositions of the throne, but were those which the people themselves testified to their king to have been his legal rights. Perhaps no country in Europe can exhibit such an ancient record of the freedom of its people, and the limited prerogatives of its ruler.'

The nature and powers of the *Witena-Gemot*, or assembly of the wise men, are afterward carefully and faithfully delineated, under the following topics of inquiry: What its members were styled? of whom it was composed? by whom convened? the times of its meeting? the place? its business? and its power? To all these questions, satisfactory answers cannot be returned: but it is highly creditable to Mr. Turner, that he confines himself to such a representation as real evidence can substantiate, and does not endeavour by the manner of his report to favour any system. We extract a passage or two from this chapter:

'We know what was necessary to exalt a ceorl to a thegen, but we cannot distinctly ascertain all the qualifications which entitled persons to a seat in the witena-gemot. There is, however, one curious passage which ascertains, that a certain amount of property was an indispensable requisite, and that acquired property would answer this purpose as well as hereditary property. The possession here stated to be necessary was 40 hides of land. The whole incident is so curious as to be worth transcribing*.—Guddmund desired in matrimony the daughter of a great man, but because he had not the lordship of 40 hides of land, he could not, though noble, be reckoned among the proceres; and therefore she refused him. He went to his brother, the abbot of Ely, complaining of his misfortune. The abbot fraudulently gave him possessions of the monastery sufficient to make up the deficiency. This circumstance attests that nobility alone was not sufficient for a seat among the witan, and that forty hides of land was an indispensable qualification.

'It would be highly interesting to know whether they who possessed this quantity of land had thereby the right of being in the witena-gemot, or whether the members of this great council were elected from the territorial proprietors, and sat as their representatives. I am not able to decide this curious question. But I cannot avoid mentioning one person's designation, which seems to have the force of expressing an *elected* member. Among the persons signing to the act of the gemot at Clofeshoe in 824 is "Ego Beonna *electus* consent. et subscrib."—

'The king presided at the witena-gemots, and sometimes, perhaps always, addressed them. In 993 we have this account of a royal speech. The king says, in a charter which recites what had passed at one of their meetings, "I benignantly addressed to them salutary and pacific words. I admonished all—that those things which were worthy of the Creator, and serviceable to the health of my soul, or to my royal dignity, and which should prevail as proper for the English people, they might, with the Lord's assistance, discuss in common."

'One of their duties was to elect the sovereign, and to assist at his coronation. Another was to co-operate with the king in making laws. Thus Bede says, of the earliest laws we have, that Ethelbert

* And of *repeating* too, as Mr. T. apparently thinks. See p. 117.

established them "with the counsel of his wise men." The introductory passages of the Anglo-Saxon laws which exist, usually express that they were made with the concurrence of the witan.'

Hence it appears that the witena-gemot, the legislative and supreme judicial court of the Anglo-Saxons, resembled our present House of Lords: but, in the Saxon assembly, the members represented territorial property rather than hereditary dignity; and in this respect it bore a strong analogy to our modern House of Commons.

We are next presented with a history of the Laws of the Anglo-Saxons respecting Homicide, Personal Injuries, Theft, Adultery, the Were and the Mund, Sureties, Legal Tribunals, Ordeals and Legal Punishments, and Trial by Jury.

It is observable that the principle of pecuniary punishment, which exists in our modern code, and particularly in cases of adultery, pervaded the laws of the Anglo-Saxons and of the German nations; and hence it arose that every man was valued at a certain sum, which was called his *were*, and whoever took his life was obliged to pay this *were*. In this mode, compensation was offered to the family or relations of the deceased, considering the homicide as a *private* wrong; and satisfaction was rendered to the community for the *public* wrong by another pecuniary fine imposed on the murderer, which was called the *wite*. In the same manner, also, as the *were* operated as a personal protection, the *mund*, which was another fine, became the guardian of a man's household peace. 'This privilege of the mund,' says Mr. Turner, 'seems to be the principle of the doctrine that every man's house is his castle.'

No apology will be required of us for transcribing a passage from the chapter on the Trial by Jury:

'In considering the origin of the happy and wise institution of the English Jury, which has contributed so much to the excellence of our national character, and to the support of our constitutional liberty, it is impossible not to feel considerable diffidence and difficulty. It is painful to decide upon a subject on which great men have previously differed. It is peculiarly desirable to trace, if possible, the seed bud, and progressive vegetation of a tree so beautiful and so venerable.

'It is not contested that the institution of a jury existed in the time of the Conqueror. The document which remains of the dispute between Gundulf the bishop of Rochester and Pichot the sheriff, ascertains this fact. We will state the leading circumstances of this valuable account.

'The question was, Whether some land belonged to the church or to the king? "The king commanded that all the men of the county should be gathered together, that by their judgment it might be

be more justly ascertained to whom the land belonged." This was obviously a shire-gemot.

"They being assembled, from fear of the sheriff, affirmed that the land was the king's: but as the bishop of Bayeux, who presided at that placitum, did not believe them, he ordered that if they knew that what they said was true, they should chuse twelve from among themselves, who should confirm with an oath what all had declared. But these, when they had withdrawn to counsel, and were there harassed by the sheriff through his messenger, returned and swore to the truth of what they asserted."

'By this decision the land became the king's. But a monk, who knew how the fact really stood, assured the bishop of Rochester of the falsehood of their oath, who communicated the information to the bishop of Bayeux. The bishop, after hearing the monk, sent for one of the twelve, who falling at his feet, confessed that he had forsworn himself. The man on whose oath they had sworn theirs, made a similar avowal.

'On this the bishop "ordered the sheriff to send the rest to London, and twelve other men from the best in the county, who confirmed that to be true which they had sworn."

'They were all adjudged to be perjured, because the man whose evidence they had accredited, had avowed his perjury. The church recovered the land, and when "the last twelve wished to affirm that they had not consented with those who had sworn, the bishop said they must prove this by the iron ordeal. And because they undertook this and could not do it, they were fined three hundred pounds to the king by the judgment of other men of the county."

'By this narration we find, that a shire-gemot determined on the dispute, in the first instance; but that in consequence of the doubts of the presiding judge, they chose from among themselves twelve who swore to the truth of what they had decided, and whose determination decided the case.

'The jury appears to me to be an institution of progressive growth, and its principle may be traced to the earliest Anglo-Saxon times. One of the judicial customs of the Saxons was, that a man might be cleared of the accusation of certain crimes, if an appointed number of persons came forwards and swore that they believed him innocent of the allegation. These men were literally juratores, who swore to a veredictum; who so far determined the facts of the case as to acquit the person in whose favour they swore. Such an oath, and such an acquittal, is a jury in its earliest and rudest shape; and it is remarkable that for accusations of any consequence among the Saxons of the continent, twelve juratores were the number required for an acquittal. Thus, for the wound of a noble which produced blood, or disclosed the bone, or broke a limb; or if one seized another by the hair, or threw him into the water; in these and some other cases twelve juratores were required. Similar customs may be observed in the laws of the continental Angli and Frisiones, though sometimes the number of the jury or juratores varied according to the charge; every number being appointed, from three to forty-eight. In the laws

laws of the Ripuarii we find that in certain cases the oaths of even seventy-two persons were necessary to his acquittal. It is obvious, from their numbers, that these could not have been witnesses to the facts alleged. Nor can we suppose that they came forward with the intention of wilful and suborned perjury. They could only be persons who, after hearing and weighing the facts of the case, proffered their deliberate oaths that the accused was innocent of the charge. And this was performing one of the most important functions of our modern juries.'

We shall not here attend to the state of Learning, which was confined to the monasteries during the period which we are examining: but it is impossible not to commend the diligence with which Mr. Turner has studied the Latin poetry of Aldhelm, Bede, and Alcuin, as well as the vernacular poetry of the Anglo-Saxons, the principles of whose versification he has endeavoured to elucidate.

If Literature made no great advancement among the Anglo-Saxons, still less were they acquainted with Science; yet some of their productions in the Arts were not contemptible. Specimens of their architecture still remain; and on the zig zag fret or moulding by which it is distinguished, Mr. Turner makes this etymological remark:

'The Saxon word used to denote the adorning of a building is gefrætwian, or frætwan, and an ornament is frætew; but frætan signifies to gnaw or to eat; and upon our recollecting that the diagonal ornament of Saxon building is an exact imitation of teeth, we can hardly refrain from supposing that the ornament was an intended imitation of teeth. Frætew and frætwung, which they used to signify ornament, may be construed fret-work, or teeth-work. The teeth which the Saxon diagonals represent, are, I believe, marine teeth. If so, perhaps they arose from the stringing of teeth of the large sea animals.'

In the last book, the structure and mechanism of the Anglo-Saxon language are explained, according to the system of Mr. Tooke, in his *Diversions of Purley*; observations are offered on its originality; and proofs of its comprehensiveness and power are adduced from our own language, which is chiefly Saxon, by taking some passages from our principal authors in prose and verse, and marking in *italics* the Saxon words which they contain. As we have already extended this article to a considerable length, we cannot enter into a discussion of this concluding chapter: but we must lament that the copious subject of the Anglo-Saxon language should have been dismissed in so concise a manner. In closing this volume, however, we sincerely acknowlege our obligations to the author for the pleasure

sure which he has afforded us, and for having made a valuable addition to the store of our domestic history, by introducing the English reader to an acquaintance with the private life of his Saxon ancestors.

May

Art. II. *Memoirs of Samuel Foote, Esquire,* with a Collection of his genuine Bon-mots, Anecdotes, Opinions, &c. mostly original; and three of his dramatic Pieces, not published in his Works. By William Cooke, Esq. 3 Vols. Crown 8vo. 13s. 6d. Boards. R. Phillips.

It will readily be allowed that the subject of the present memoirs was a character much more likely to excite our interest, than many of his dramatic brethren whose histories have been pompously recorded. We agree, therefore, with Mr. Cooke in regretting that no adequate biography of him has yet appeared; and we shall briefly notice a few of the particulars which are here related.

Respecting the qualifications of Mr. Cooke for the task which he has imposed on himself, we are told that

'Very early in life he had the pleasure of being introduced to this genuine son of comic humour; and finding in him all the charms of conversation which could attach a young man with a literary and lively turn of mind, he was careful in recollecting and noting down as many of his anecdotes, conversa ions, bon-mots, &c., as convenience would permit: not with any intent, at that time, to publish them; but as the records of a man who drew on him the gaze of the fashionable and literary world,—as the reminiscences of hours which afforded such exquisite delight.

'On the death of Foote, which happened about nine years after their first acquaintance, the Editor had the pleasure of continuing in acquaintance with many respectable persons who were the intimates of his late friend's earlier days, and who had seen him in all the situations of his varied life. From these he was curious to glean as much of his manners, habits, and conversation, as he could; and from their readiness to oblige, as well as from the researches of an old and valuable friend (whose name, which he is not permitted to mention here, would be a passport for every thing curious or authentic in literary or dramatic history), he has collected such materials as embolden him to publish these volumes. He is at the same time ready to allow that the work might have been more enlarged, had it been begun immediately after the death of Foote, by some of those cotemporaries here alluded to; when the ardour of congenial talents, and the *raciness* of events, would have made greater and more forcible impressions: but under the actual circumstances, he not only presumes that his performance will be found the best that has yet appeared, but is rather sanguine in thinking it the best that can *now* be effected.'

After

After some prefatory remarks, Mr. Cooke proceeds to state that

'Samuel Foote was borne at Truro, in Cornwall, about the year 1729: his father, John Foote, was a very useful magistrate of that county, and enjoyed the posts of commissioner of the prize office and fine contract. His mother (descended in the female line from the old Earl of Rutland) was the daughter of Sir Edward Goodere, bart., who represented the county of Hereford in parliament for several years, and brought Mr. Foote a large fortune.'—

'The father died soon after the establishment of his children in the world, but the mother lived to the extreme age of *eighty-four*, through various fortunes. We had the pleasure of dining with her in company with a grand-daughter of her's, at a barrister's chambers in Gray's Inn, when she was at the advanced age of *seventy-nine*; and though she had full sixty steps to ascend before she reached the drawing room, which looked into the gardens, she did it without the help of a cane, or any other support, and with all the activity of a woman of forty.

'Her manners and conversation were of the same cast; witty, humorous, and convivial; and though her remarks, occasionally, (considering her age and sex,) rather strayed "beyond the limits of becoming mirth," she, on the whole, delighted every body, and was confessedly the heroine of that day's party.

'She was likewise in face and person the very model of her son Samuel—short, fat, and flabby, with an eye that eternally gave the signal for mirth and good humour: in short, she resembled him so much in all her movements, and so strongly identified his person and manners, that by changing habits, they might be thought to have interchanged sexes.'—

'Foote's first education was at one of the three principal grammar schools long since founded in the city of Worcester, and which have always borne a considerable reputation for learning in all its branches, as well as a general attention to the morals of the pupils. The school to which he was sent was, at that time, under the care of Dr. Miles, a particular friend of his father's, and a man of great eminence in the discharge of his duties.'

The following circumstance is said to have first unfolded his peculiar talent of mimicry:

'Being at his father's house during the Christmass recess, a man in the parish had been charged with a bastard child; and this business being to be heard the next day before the bench of justices, the family were conversing about it after dinner, and making various observations. Samuel, then a boy between eleven and twelve years of age, was silent for some time; at last he drily observed, "Well, I foresee how this business will end, as well as what the justices will say upon it."—"Aye," said his father (rather surprised at the boy's observation), "well, Sam, let us hear it." Upon this the young mimic, dressing up his face in a strong caricature likeness of justice D——, thus proceeded:

"'Hem!

" ' Hem! hem! here's a fine job of work broke out indeed! a *feller* begetting bastards under our very noses, (and let me tell you, good people, a common labouring rascal too,) when our taxes are so great, and our poor rates so high; why 'tis an abomination; we shall not have an honest servant maid in the neighbourhood, and the whole parish will swarm with bastards; therefore, I say, let him be fined for his pranks very severely; and if the rascal has not money, (as indeed how should he have it?) or can't find security, (as indeed how should such a *feller* find security?) let him be clapp'd up in prison till he pays it.'

" Justice A—will be milder, and say, Well, well, brother, this is not a new case, bastards have been begotten before now, and bastards will be begotten to the end of the chapter; therefore, though the man has committed a crime—and indeed I must say a crime that holds out a very bad example to a neighbourhood like this—yet let us not ruin the poor fellow for this one fault: he may do better another time, and mend his life; therefore, as the man is poor, let him be obliged to provide for the child according to the best of his abilities, giving two honest neighbours as security for the payment."

' He mimicked these two justices with so much humour and discrimination of character, as "to set the table in a roar;" and, among the rest, his father, who demanded, why *he* was left out, as he also was one of the Quorum? Samuel for some time hesitated; but his father and the rest of the company earnestly requesting it, he began:

" Why, upon my word, in respect to this here business, to be sure it is rather an awkward affair; and to be sure it ought not to be; that is to say, the justices of the peace should not suffer such things to be done with impunity:—however, on the whole I am rather of my brother A———'s opinion; which is, that the man should pay according to his circumstances, and be admonished—I say *admonished** —not to commit so flagrant an offence for the future."

After having passed through his school education with the character of an arch, clever lad, Foote was removed by election to Worcester College, of which Dr. Gower was then provost. There, we are told, 'he was not altogether idle in respect to study, for he had an ambition that counteracted his love of pleasure, and frequently induced him to turn his attention to his books; and thus besides rendering himself a very competent Greek and Latin scholar, he pursued a course of *belles lettres* reading, very rare in young men of his description.'

' * A favourite word of his father's on the bench; which, with his plain matter of-fact manner of pronouncing it, and twirling his thumbs at the same time, drew so correct a picture of the justice, as met the warmest approbation of the whole company; and even of his father, who, so far from being offended, rewarded him for his good humour and pleasantry.'

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From College, he entered himself in the Temple: but the study of the law was little suited to the excentricities of such a character:

'During his continuance in the Temple, he was seen there *pro forma*, situated in handsome chambers, surrounded by a well furnished library, and eating his way (*via* commons) to the profession of the law. He is remembered by a few now living, in that situation; and they report him to have been one of the greatest beaux (even in those days of general dress), as well as one of the most distinguished wits who frequented the Grecian and the Bedford.'—

'Here Foote appeared; in the flush of youth, wit, and fortune. Dr. Barrowby, no mean judge in every thing which respected elegant knowledge, was present at his first exhibition at the Bedford, and he always spoke of him as a young man of most extraordinary talents.—"He came into the room," said he, "dressed out in a frock suit of green and silver lace, bag wig, sword, *bouquet*, and point ruffles, and immediately joined the critical circle of the upper end of the room. No body knew him. He, however, soon boldly entered into conversation; and by the brilliancy of his wit, the justness of his remarks, and the unembarrassed freedom of his manners, attracted the general notice. The buz of the room went round, 'Who is he? whence comes he?' &c.; which nobody could answer; until a handsome carriage stopping at the door to take him to the assembly of a lady of fashion, they learned from the servants that his name was Foote, that he was a young gentleman of family and fortune, and a student of the Inner Temple."

'He continued in the Temple but a very few years; and yet even this period was sufficient to exhaust a fortune, which, by all account, was very considerable, and which, perhaps, with a genteel economy, might have given him the *otium cum dignitate* independent of any profession. But he was incapable of the ordinary restraints of life: he dashed into all the prevailing dissipations of the time; and what the extravagance of dress, living, &c. had not done, the gaming table finally accomplished. He struggled with embarrassments for some time: but want, imperious want, is an austere monitor, and must at last be attended to by the most thoughtless spendthrift. He accordingly soon found himself at a stand; his creditors grew obstinate and impatient, his friends, as is usual in such cases, deserted him; and he found that something must necessarily be done, to provide the means of subsistence.

'In this situation, it was very natural for him to think of the stage. *Acting* was a science which he already knew theoretically; and, conversing so much with players as he usually did, he was perhaps not a little incited by their disengaged, *free* manner of living, to become a candidate for the profession.'

Foote's first *entrée* was at the Haymarket Theatre on the 6th of February, 1744, in the character of Othello: on which performance it was remarked by Macklin, that 'it was little better than a total failure.' He seems, however, to have been

soon

soon led to a better estimate of his powers, by assuming the double character of author and performer; and he opened the Haymarket Theatre with a piece of his own writing, called *The Diversions of the Morning*.

'This consisted of the introduction of several characters in real life, then well known, whose manner of conversation and expression he very ludicrously hit off in the diction of his drama, and further represented by an imitation not only of their tones of voice, but even of their very persons. Among these characters there were a certain physician, who was much better known from the oddity and singularity of his appearance and conversation, than from any eminence in the practice of his profession; a celebrated oculist at that time in the height of vogue and popularity, &c; and in the latter part of the piece, under the character of a theatrical director he mimicked with great humour the several styles of most of the principal performers on the English stage.

'An entertainment of this sort met at first with every degree of success that his most sanguine wishes could expect. The audience saw a species of performance quite novel to the stage brought forward and supported by a young man, independent of any other auxiliary than the fertility of his own pen, and his own powers of performance; while the author, feeling himself bold in this support, beheld his future fortunes opening before him.

'He soon found, however, that he reckoned without his host; for, whether from the alarm excited in the theatres royal, or the resentment of most of the performers who smarted under the lash of his mimicry, the civil magistrates of Westminister were called upon to interfere; and, under the sanction of an act of parliament for limiting a number of play-houses, opposed to Bayes's new raised troops a *posse* of constables, who, entering the theatre in magisterial array, dismissed the audience, and left the laughing Aristophanes to consider of new ways and means for his support.'

Foote, however, remarks his biographer, 'had found out his *forte*;' and accordingly, from this time to the end of his life, he continued to amuse the public as a writer and actor, with various though generally with splendid success.

Of his inattention to pecuniary concerns, numerous proofs are given; and indeed in this particular he seems to have been incorrigible *.

'About

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* While we are speaking of Foote's prodigality, it would be unpardonable not to record at the same time some instances of his generosity. We are told that "his mother, who brought a large fortune to her husband as heiress to the Goodere estates, was latterly, by a carelessness and dissipation so peculiar to this family, in a great measure a dependent on her son's bounty; as was also his brother, who was brought up to the church. To the latter he allowed sixty pounds a year, besides the freedom of his table and theatre; to the former

'About the close of this season (1748) our author had a very considerable fortune left him by a relation of his mother, which enabled him once more to move in all that splendour of dissipation which was so congenial to his temper. He remained in London for some time, in order to identify this great change of fortune to his friends; and then moved off to the Continent, to add one more English dupe to the intrigues and fripperies of the French nation†.'

We again find him figuring in a similar style of action, on the success of his celebrated comedy *the Mayor of Garratt.*

'The receipts produced by this comedy recruited our hero's finances so powerfully, that as his purse was generally the barometer to his spirits, he dashed into all kinds of higher extravagance. He made alterations both in his town and country house, enlarged his hospitalities, and laid out no less a sum than 1200*l.* in a magnificent service of plate. When he was reminded by some friends of these extravagancies, and particularly the last, he turned it off by saying, "he acted from a principle of economy; for as he knew he could never keep his *gold*, he very prudently laid out his money in *silver*, which would not only last longer, but in the end sell for nearly as much as it originally cost."

In the year 1760, while on a visit at the house of Lord Mexborough, Foote had the misfortune to lose his leg, in consequence of a fall from an unruly horse, on which he was mounted, as is here said, by way of check to his vanity in

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former a pension of one hundred pounds till her death, which happened some years before that of her son *.'

'* Under one of her temporary embarrassments, she wrote the following laconic epistle to our hero; which, with his answer, exhibit no bad specimen of the thoughtless dispositions of the two characters: —

"DEAR SAM,

"I AM in prison for debt: come and assist your loving mother,

"E. FOOTE."

"DEAR MOTHER,

"SO am I; which prevents his duty being paid to his loving mother by her affectionate son, "SAM FOOTE."

"*P S.* I have sent my attorney to assist you; in the mean time let us hope for better days."

'† This being the *third* fortune left him, he set up a dashing carriage, &c.; and, as emblematical of the event, chose the following motto:

'*Iterum, iterum, iterumque.*'

asserting his skill in hunting. The joke went too far in its consequence: but the late Duke of York, who was one of the party, 'took care to alleviate this accident by every instance of kindness in his power; and among other good offices, he obtained for him, in the July following, a royal patent to erect a theatre in the city and liberties of Westminster, with a privilege of exhibiting dramatic pieces there, from the 14th of May to the 14th day of September, during his natural life.'

Here, again, money flowed plentifully into his pocket, and was as usual speedily lavished away:

'The receipts from "*The Devil on two Sticks*" exceeded his most sanguine expectations. There was little or no demand for any variation in the theatrical bill of fare during the whole season; so that it alone was said to have produced him between three and four thousand pounds. Twelve hundred pounds of this sum he lodged at his banker's, as a deposit for future contingencies; beside five hundred in cash, which he intended to take over with him to Ireland, where he was engaged for the ensuing winter.

'His usual *dæmon* of extravagance, however, still haunted him; for, taking Bath in his way to Hollyhead, the September following, he fell in with a nest of gamblers (the usual attendants on this fashionable place of resort), who, finding him with full pockets and high spirits, availed themselves of their superior dexterity with considerable success. Several of the frequenters of the rooms saw this, but it was too common a case for private interference; besides, friendship is not the usual commerce of watering places. At last his friend Rigby, who happened just then to be at Bath, took an opportunity to tell him how grossly he was plundered; and further remarked, "that from his careless manner of playing and betting, and his habit of telling stories when he should be minding his game, he must in the long run be ruined, let him play with whom he would."

'Foote, who perhaps by this time had partly seen his error, but was too proud to take a lesson in the character of *a dupe*, very ridiculously and ungratefully resented this advice. He told his friend with an unbecoming sharpness, "that although he was no politican by profession he could see as soon as another into any sinister designs laid against him: that he was too old to be schooled; and that as to any distinction of rank between them to warrant this liberty, he saw none; they were both the king's servants, with this difference in *his* favour,—that he could always draw upon his talents for independence, when perhaps a courtier could not find the king's treasury always open to him for support."

'On receiving this return, Rigby, as may be well imagined, made his bow, and walked off; while *the dupe* went on, and not only lost the five hundred pounds which he had about him, but the twelve hundred at his banker's; and thus, stripped of his last guinea, was obliged to borrow a hundred pounds to carry him to Ireland.'

Fortune, however, was not yet tired of bestowing favors on this her spoiled child; and he returned from Ireland recruited in

in his finances, and farther established in his reputation; 'enjoying the *otium cum dignitate* at North End upon an enlarged scale; holding out the strongest excitements to good society, entertainment for both mind and body.'

It is with sorrow that we see the latter part of the life of this British Aristophanes clouded with cares. Indeed, he may be said to have fallen a victim to the most infamous calumny. He had been involved in a dispute with the celebrated Duchess of Kingston, in consequence of being suspected of intending to represent her on the stage as Lady Kitty Crocodile, in *the Trip to Calais*; into which play he had also introduced a character, supposed to represent a person who was in her confidence, under the title of Dr. Viper*:

'From the first report of Foote's *Trip to Calais* being in contemplation, obscure hints and inuendoes appeared occasionally in the newspapers, relative to his private character; which, from various circumstances, as from their particularly appearing in the newspaper of which Jackson was editor, the public unanimously attributed to this man. On the representation of *The Capuchin*, this plan of calumny began to assume a more settled form; and a report was industriously circulated about the town, that a charge would soon be brought forward in a judicial form against the manager of the Haymarket Theatre for an attempt to commit a very odious assault.'

A bill of indictment was afterward preferred, in consequence of which a trial commenced in the court of King's Bench; and the result was that the Jury, without leaving the box, returned their verdict of *not guilty*:—but it was beyond the power of any verdict to remedy the ill effects of the prosecution on Foote's health:

'Though he had many respectable persons much interested in his behalf, none seemed more anxious than his old friend, and fellow labourer in the dramatic vineyard, the late Mr. Murphy; who, as soon as the trial was over, took a coach, and drove to Foote's house in Suffolk-street, Charing-cross, to be the first messenger of the good tidings.

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* Of this person the following account is here given:

'He was a clergyman of the name of Jackson, better known by the assumed title of Dr. Jackson, who had for many years supported himself partly as an editor of a newspaper in London, and always by a life of shift and expediency. He at this time mostly resided at Kingston-house, and was supposed to be of her Grace's *cabinet council*. This man, after going through a variety of adventures incident to such characters, at last settled in Ireland: where his restless and intriguing spirit led him to join the rebellion in that kingdom in the year 1797, for which he was tried and found guilty; but saved himself the disgrace of a public execution, by taking poison the night before his receiving sentence of death.'

'Foote had been looking out of the window, in anxious expectation of such a message. Murphy, as soon as he perceived him, waved his hat in token of victory; and jumping out of the coach, ran up stairs to pay his personal congratulations: but alas! instead of meeting his old friend in all the exultation of high spirits on this occasion, he saw him extended on the floor, in strong hysterics; in which state he continued near an hour before he could be recovered to any kind of recollection of himself, or the object of his friend's visit.

'On the return of his senses, finding himself honourably acquitted, he received the congratulations of his friends and numerous acquaintances, and seemed to be relieved from those pangs of uncertainty and suspence which must have weighed down the firmest spirits on so trying an occasion. But the stigma of the charge still lingered in his mind; and one or two illiberal allusions to it, which were made by some unfeeling people, preyed deeply on his heart. The man who for so many years had basked in the sunshine of public favour, who was to live in a round of wit and gaiety "or not to live at all," was ill calculated to be at the mercy of every coarse fool, or inhuman enemy.'

Foote did not long survive this shock, but died at Dover in his way to France, on the 21st of October, 1777, in the fifty-seventh year of his age.

Vols. II. and III. of this work are occupied by remarks on Foote's character, public and private, and by a collection of the bon-mots, characters, opinions, &c. of Foote and his cotemporaries. Drs. Monsey, Johnson, Swift, and Franklin, Garrick, Burke, the Delavals, Rich, Hifferman, Murphy, &c. &c. occasionally figure in this assemblage; and many amusing anecdotes are introduced that are new to us, as well as many more that we have before heard. In his preface, Mr. Cooke thus speaks of this part of his publication:

'Of the characters, anecdotes, opinions, &c., most were related by Foote himself, and many by the literary society in which he lived. Some, being either referred to in the range of conversation, or growing out of a corresponding subject, the Editor thought fit to subjoin, from a wish to give to the original matter a richness of appropriate colouring and diversification.

'In short, *this* part may be considered not only as the *school of Foote*, but of his time: where the hero is discovered among his friends and cotemporaries "in his night-gown and slippers;" where the wit, the whim, the humour, the taste, and general character, of the man will be best seen; and where perhaps will be found the best apology for many parts of his life; as "he who had such jocular propensities, with such inexhaustible sources for pleasing mankind, could have no serious views of ever becoming their enemy."

The subsequent anecdote of Garrick is related as original; and we certainly do not recollect to have before met with it:

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'When Garrick first undertook to play *Bayes*, in *The Rehearsal*, he had some doubts of the propriety of taking-off his brother performers; and therefore made a proposal to Giffard, the manager of the theatre in Goodman's fields, to permit him to begin with him as a kind of an apology for the rest. Giffard, supposing that Garrick would only just glance at him to countenance the mimicry of the others, consented: but Garrick hit him off so truly, and made him so completely ridiculous, at rehearsal, that Giffard, in a rage, sent him a challenge; which Garrick accepting, they met the next morning, when the latter was wounded in the sword arm.

'The comedy of *The Rehearsal* had been during this time advertised for the Saturday night ensuing; but the duel intervening (which none but the parties and their seconds knew of at that time, and very few ever since), the play was put off for a fortnight longer, *on account of the sudden indisposition of a principal performer*. At the end of that time it came out with imitations of most of the principal actors; but Giffard was totally omitted.'

A criticism by the late Lord Orford, on the dramas of Beaumont and Fletcher, is also worth quotation:

'The following letter, not published in any of his works, was written by the late Lord Orford in answer to a letter of lady C——n, requesting his opinion of *The Scornful Lady* by Beaumont and Fletcher, since altered to the comedy of *The Capricious Lady*.

"I return your Ladyship the Play, and will tell you the truth. At first I proposed just to amend the mere faults of language, and the incorrectness: but the farther I proceeded, the less I found it worth correcting; and indeed I believe nothing but Mrs. Abington's acting can make any thing of it. It is like all the rest of the pieces of Beaumont and Fletcher: they had good ideas, but never made the most of them; and seem to me to have finished their plays when they were drunk, so very improbable are the means by which they produce their *denouement*.

"To produce a good play from one of theirs, I believe the only way would be, to take their plan, draw the characters from nature, omit all that is improbable, and entirely re-write the dialogue; for their language is at once hard and pert, vulgar and incorrect and has neither the pathos of the preceding age nor the elegance of this. They are grossly indelicate, and yet have no simplicity. There is a a wide difference between unrefined and vicious indecency: the first would not invent fig leaves; the latter tears holes in them after they are invented."

The supplementary dramatic pieces are not of much importance. They are followed by Foote's Defence of his *Minor*, in answer to some remarks on it, which was printed in a pamphlet in the year 1760, and noticed in our 23d Vol. p. 328.

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ART. III. *General Zoology*, or Systematic Natural History, by George Shaw, M.D. F.R.S. &c. With Plates from the first Authorities and most select Specimens, engraved by Mr. Heath and Mrs. Griffith. Vol. VI. *Insecta.* 2 Parts. 8vo. pp. 520. with 137 Plates. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Kearsley. 1806.

VERY judiciously, Dr. Shaw prefaces this continuation of an elegant and important work with some general observations on insects, and a short notice of the Linnéan classification of these minute productions of animated Nature. In a few additional pages, he might have sketched the history of Entomology, accompanied by biographical anecdotes of the principal authors: but brevity and rapidity seem to have presided over this portion of his labours; and he not only dispenses with regular references and synonyms, but presses his exposition of the whole class of insects, which contains at least twenty thousand distinct species, into the compass of a single volume. Such a superficial view of the subject may satisfy the bulk of *ephemerous* readers, but must excite the regret of all who are in the least conversant in this department of Natural History; and who cannot avoid reflecting that many genera and numerous species are wholly omitted, and others very imperfectly elucidated. With Dr. Shaw's powers of description and accuracy of observation, something more, we conceive, might have been easily accomplished, without incurring the risk of prolixity, or repelling those who are solicitous of instruction. As an entertaining and well-penned illustration of a few of the most remarkable kinds of insects, the present volume is intitled to very considerable commendation: but it can hardly be regarded as forming a part of a regular and systematic series. We are, indeed, aware that the interests of knowlege are too often sacrificed to the influence of more mercenary motives; that the length of a moral treatise, or the dimensions of an Encyclopædia, must be regulated by the state of the literary market; and that *undertakers* must be obtained, who can adjust their communications to certain prescribed limits. Whether our skilful naturalist has found it expedient to submit to such trammels, we cannot pretend to determine: but we observe, with sincere satisfaction, that even within his very circumscribed boundaries, he selects the most alluring portions of his materials, and contrives to bestow popularity and interest on a subject which seemed to have exhausted the language of technical definition, and to have drawn on its votaries the unmeaning ridicule of the ignorant and the thoughtless.

The *Coleopterous* genera, which pass under the Doctor's rapid review, are, *Scarabæus*, *Lucanus*, *Dermestes*, *Ptinus*, *Hister*, *Gyrinus*,

Gyrinus, *Pausus*, *Byrrhus*, *Silpha*, *Cassida*, *Coccinella*, *Chrysomela*, *Hispa*, *Bruchus*, *Curculio*, *Attelabus*, *Cerambyx*, *Leptura*, *Necydalis*, *Lampyris*, *Cantharis*, *Elater*, *Cicindela*, *Buprestis*, *Dytiscus*, *Hydrophilus*, *Carabus*, *Tenebrio*, *Meloe*, *Mordella*, *Staphylinus*, and *Forficula*. Thus it is obvious that at least as many more are passed in silence; and if from the genera we descend to the species, it will suffice to remark that, according to the most recent discoveries, about five hundred of the latter are included under *Scarabæus*, only *five* of which are here particularized.

The ensuing account of *Ptinus fatidicus* is repeated from the *Naturalist's Miscellany*, a work published some time ago by the same author:

'Among the popular superstitions which the almost general illumination of modern times has not been able to obliterate, the dread of the Death-Watch may well be considered as one of the most predominant, and still continues to disturb the habitations of rural tranquillity with groundless fears and absurd apprehensions. It is not indeed to be imagined that they who are engaged in the more important cares of providing the immediate necessaries of life should have either leisure or inclination to investigate with philosophic exactness the causes of a particular sound: yet it must be allowed to be a very singular circumstance that an animal so common should not be more universally known, and the peculiar noise which it occasionally makes be more universally understood. It is chiefly in the advanced state of spring that this alarming little animal commences its sound, which is no other than the call or signal by which the male and female are led to each other, and which may be considered as analogous to the call of birds; though not owing to the voice of the insect, but to its beating on any hard substance with the shield or fore part of its head. The prevailing number of distinct strokes which it beats is from seven to nine or eleven; which very circumstance may perhaps still add in some degree to the ominous character which it bears among the vulgar. These sounds or beats are given in pretty quick succession, and are repeated at uncertain intervals; and in old houses where the insects are numerous, may be heard at almost every hour of the day; epecially if the weather be warm. The sound exactly resembles that which may be made by beating moderately hard with the nail on a table. The insect is of a colour so nearly resembling that of decayed wood, viz. an obscure greyish brown, that it may for a considerable time elude the search of the enquirer. It is about a quarter of an inch in length, and is moderately thick in proportion, and the wing-shells are marked with numerous irregular variegations of a lighter or greyer cast than the ground-colour. In the twentieth and twenty-second volume of the Philosophical Transactions may be found a description of this species by the celebrated Derham, with some very just observations relative to its habits and general appearance; and it seems singular that so remarkable an insect should have almost escaped the notice of more modern entomologists. In

the twelfth edition of the Systema Naturæ of Linnæus it does not appear; but is probably the *Dermestes tesselatus* of Fabricius, in which case he seems to have placed it in a wrong genus. Ridiculous, and even incredible as it may appear, it is an animal that may in some measure be tamed: at least it may be so far familiarized as to be made to beat occasionally, by taking it out of its confinement, and beating on a table or board, when it will readily answer the noise and will continue to beat as often as required.

'We must be careful not to confound this animal, which is the real Death Watch of the vulgar, emphatically so called, with a much smaller insect of a very different genus, which makes a sound like the ticking of a watch, and continues it for a long time without intermission. It belongs to a totally different order, and is the Termes pulsatorium of Linnæus.

'I cannot conclude this slight account of the Death-Watch without quoting a sentence from that celebrated work the Pseudodoxia Epidemica of the learned Sir Thomas Brown, who on this subject expresses himself in words like these. "He that could eradicate this error from the minds of the people would save from many a cold sweat the meticulous heads of nurses and grandmothers."

The minute and tedious details concerning the singular genus *Pausus*, transmitted by Dr. Afzelius to the Linnéan Society, are stated with great precision; and we are presented with amusing remarks on the history of some sorts of *Attelabus*, *Lampyris*, *Elater*, *Dytiscus*, *Hydrophilus*, *Carabus*, and *Forficula*.—The *Hemipterous* families here selected are *Blatta*, *Mantis*, *Plasma*, *Gryllus*, *Fulgora*, *Cicada*, *Notonecta*, *Nepa*, *Cimex*, *Aphis*, *Chermes*, *Coccus*, and *Thrips*.

Mantis oratoria, or the *Camel Cricket*, is thus described:

'This insect, which is a stranger to the British isles, is found in most of the warmer parts of Europe and is entirely of a beautiful green colour. It is nearly three inches in length, of a slender shape, and in its general sitting posture is observed to hold up the two forelegs, slightly bent, as if in an attitude of prayer: for this reason the superstition of the vulgar has conferred upon it the reputation of a sacred animal, and a popular notion has often prevailed, that a child or traveller having lost his way, would be safely directed by observing the quarter to which the animal pointed when taken into the hand. In its real disposition it is very far from sanctity; preying with great rapacity on any of the smaller insects which fall in its way, and for which it lies in wait with anxious assiduity in the posture at first mentioned, seizing them with a sudden spring when within its reach, and devouring them. It is also of a very pugnacious nature, and when kept with others of its own species in a state of captivity, will attack its neighbour with the utmost violence, till one or the other is destroyed in the contest. Roësel, who kept some of these insects, observes that in their mutual conflicts their manœuvres very much resemble those of Huzzars fighting with sabres; and sometimes one cleaves the other through at a single stroke, or

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severs the head from its body. During these engagements the wings are generally expanded, and when the battle is over the conqueror devours his antagonist.'

The devastating progress of the locust is likewise commemorated with singular effect: but the details are too long for quotation, and most of them have already appeared before the public in other forms. Dr. Shaw very plausibly conjectures that the locusts mentioned in the New Testament, as the food of St. John the Baptist, were of the species which Linné denominates *Gryllus cristatus*, and which at this day are exposed in the market as an article of food, in various parts of the Levant.

On the singular history of the *Aphides*, or *Plant-lice*, which has already more than once attracted our notice, Dr. Shaw has borrowed much important information from a paper of the late Mr. Curtis, which appeared some time ago in the Philosophical Transactions.

Under the *Lepidopterous* order, the somewhat fanciful subdivisions of the Linnéan school are shortly explained, and a few examples are adduced of some of the most remarkable species of *Papilio*, *Sphinx*, and *Phalæna*. On the transformations incident to these families of insects, our readers will doubtless be pleased with the author's sensible and pious reflections:

'The alteration of form which the whole of the papilionaceous tribe undergo, and in a particular manner the changes above-described of the genus Sphinx, afford a subject of the most pleasing contemplation to the mind of the naturalist, and though a deeply philosophical survey demonstrates that there is no real or absolute change produced in the identity of the creature itself, or that it is in reality no other than the gradual and progressive evolution of parts before concealed, and which lay masqued under the form of an insect of a widely different appearance, yet it is justly viewed with the highest admiration, and even generally acknowledged as in the most lively manner typical of the last eventful change.

'If any regard is to be paid to a similarity of names, it should seem that the ancients were sufficiently struck with the transformations of the Butterfly, and its revival from a seeming temporary death, as to have considered it as an emblem of the soul; the Greek word ψυχη signifying both the soul and a butterfly. This is also confirmed by their allegorical sculptures, in which the butterfly occurs as an emblem of immortality.

'Modern naturalists, impressed with the same idea, and laudably solicitous to apply it as an illustration of the awful mystery revealed in the sacred writings, have drawn their allusions to it from the dormant condition of the papilionaceous insects during their state of chrysalis, and their resuscitation from it; but they have, in general, unfortunately chosen a species the least proper for the purpose; viz.

viz. the Silkworm, an animal which neither undergoes its changes under the surface of the earth, nor, when emerged from its tomb, is it an insect of any remarkable beauty; but the larva or caterpillar of the Sphinx, when satiate of the food allotted to it during that state, retires to a very considerable depth beneath the surface of the ground, where it divests itself of all appearance of its former state, and continues buried during several months; then rises to the surface, and bursting from the confinement of its tomb, commences a being of powers so comparatively exalted, and of beauty so superior as not to be beheld without the highest admiration. Even the animated illustration taken from the vegetable world, so justly admired, as best calculated for general apprehension, must yield in the force of its similitude to that drawn from the insect's life, since Nature exhibits few phenomena that can equal so wonderful a transformation.'

The hurried notices with respect to the *Phalænæ* are agreeably relieved by an abridged history of the Manufacture of Silk.

Part II. of this volume commences with the *Neuropterous* tribes, which are discussed in a few pages; the only genera which are particularized being *Libellula*, *Ephemera*, *Phryganea*, *Hemerobius*, *Myrmeleon*, *Panorpa*, and *Raphidia*. The most prominent passages in this division of the work are those which recount the progressive history of the *Libellula varia*, from the egg to the winged state, and the cunning manner in which the *Myrmeleon* captures its prey.

Dr. Shaw's illustrations of the *Hymenopterous* order are limited to *Cynips*, *Tenthredo*, *Sirex*, *Ichneumon*, *Sphex*, *Chrysis*, *Vespa*, *Apis*, *Formica*, and *Mutilla*. The apparent severity of nature, it is observed, in giving birth to the genus *Ichneumon*, may be much diminished by supposing that, after the operation of piercing the skin and depositing the eggs has been performed, the caterpillar feels no acute pain, and loses its life by gradual decay.

The account of the common honey-bee is chiefly composed of extracts from Mr. John Hunter's Memoir inserted in the Philosophical Transactions for 1792. Some additional and very curious information on this subject might have been selected from Mr. Huber's observations, which will shortly fall under our consideration.

Oestrus, *Tipula*, *Diopsis*, *Musca*, *Tabanus*, *Culex*, *Empis*, *Conops*, *Asilus*, *Bombylius*, and *Hippobosca*, are the generic titles of Dr. Shaw's *Dipterous* catalogue; and most of them are dismissed with provoking brevity. We may remark, however, that Mr. Bracy Clark's wonderful account of *Oestrus equi*, and Mr. Bruce's relation of the destructive properties of the *Zimb*, occupy some valuable and attractive pages; and had these passages now appeared for the first time, we should, without hesitation, have transcribed them at length.

The

The concluding, or *Apterous* section, comprizes *Lepisma*, *Podura*, *Termes*, *Pediculus*, *Pulex*, *Acarus*, *Hydrachna*, *Phalangium*, *Aranæa*, *Scorpio*, *Cancer*, *Monoculus*, *Oniscus*, *Scolopendra*, and *Julus*. Here, the figuring article is a long but interesting extract from Mr. Smeathman's history of the Termites. In the selection of his quotations, Dr. Shaw, on this as on former occasions, manifests both taste and judgment: but we fear that he has been less anxious than heretofore to confirm his claims to the merit of an original writer, or to that of a critical expounder and corrector of existing arrangements. Yet we cherish the well-grounded hope that, in the farther prosecution of his undertaking, he will resume his habits of patient investigation, and present us with a more complete and more elaborate analysis of the subjects which wait his discussion.—We have only to add, that the plates and typography of the present volume are executed in the same superior style as in those which have preceded it.

Muir.

ART. IV. *A brief Restrospect of the Eighteenth Century.* Part the First; containing a Sketch of the Revolutions and Improvements in Science, Arts, and Literature, during that Period. By Samuel Miller, A.M. One of the Ministers of the United Presbyterian Churches in the City of New York, Member of the American Philosophical Society, and Corresponding Member of the Historical Society of Massachusetts. 3 Vols. 8vo. Printed at New York and re-printed for Johnson in London, Price one Guinea, in Boards.

A HISTORY of literature, science, and the arts, is a more pleasing and instructive theme of contemplation than those registers of the follies and crimes of man which have never ceased to deform the annals of the world; and a review of the progress of mind, during the most recent and splendid period of its improvement, is a task not unworthy of the most approved talents and of the most exalted genius. The reverend author of these volumes, however, arrogates to himself no such lofty pretensions, but very candidly acknowleges the comparatively limited range of his reading, his want of access to large libraries, and his ignorance of most of the languages of the continent of Europe. These, we must confess, are very serious disqualifications in one who should attempt an enlarged and liberal retrospect of the literature and philosophy of the eighteenth century: but it is not every writer who would have the ingenuousness to avow them; and Mr. Miller, with a degree of modesty and good sense which cannot be too much commended, limits his exertions to the circumscribed sphere of his opportunities and acquirements. As he aims only at

rapid sketches, he is, for the most part, contented merely to state the principal discoveries, inventions, and improvements which distinguish the important age to which his work refers; and to mention the names of those individuals to whom the world is indebted for them. Such an outline, if drawn with ability and fairness, may better suit the purposes of popular reading than a more detailed and learned analysis, while it may assist the philosophic scholar in preparing more ample and satisfactory records. The author has at least the merit of suggesting and of partly executing an important design, and the honour of inviting the literati of Europe, who possess advantages that have been denied to him, to follow and to excel in the same career.

Mr. M. thus relates the origin of this publication:

'On the 1st day of January, in the year 1801, the author being called, in the course of his pastoral duty, to deliver a sermon, instead of choosing the topics of address most usual at the commencement of a *new year*, it occurred to him as more proper, in entering on a *new century*, to attempt a review of the preceding age, and to deduce from the prominent features of that period such moral and religious reflexions as might be suited to the occasion. A discourse, formed on this plan, was accordingly delivered. Some who heard it were pleased to express a wish that it might be published. After determining to comply with this wish, it was at first intended to publish the original discourse, with some amplification; to add a large body of notes for the illustration of its several parts; and to comprise the whole in a single volume. Proposals were issued for the publication in this form, and a number of subscribers gave their names for its encouragement.

'Little progress had been made in preparing the work, on this plan, for the press, before the objections to such a mode of arranging the materials appeared so many and cogent, that it was at length thought best to lay aside the form of a sermon and to adopt a plan that would admit of more minuteness of detail, and of greater freedom in the choice and exhibition of facts. This alteration in the structure of the work led to an extension of its limits; materials insensibly accumulated; and that portion which was originally intended to be comprised in a third or fourth part of a single volume gradually swelled into two volumes *.'

This first Part consists of twenty-six chapters, which respectively treat of Mechanical Philosophy, Chemical Philosophy, Natural History, Medicine, (which occupies two chapters), Geography, Mathematics, Navigation, Agriculture, Mechanic Arts, Fine Arts, Physiognomy, Philosophy of the Human Mind, Classic Literature, Oriental Literature, Modern Languages, Philosophy of Language, History, Biography, Romances and Novels, Poetry, Literary Journals, Political Journals, Literary and Scientific Associa-

'* The original edition is in two volumes.'

tions,

tions, Encyclopædias and Scientific Dictionaries, Education, and Nations lately become Literary. A more connected arrangement of his materials would probably occur to an acute inquirer; and we can perceive no good reason for placing the mechanic arts at such a distance from mechanic philosophy, nor for anticipating the general division of Politics by giving an account of Political Journals. The tabular view of the departments of knowlege, prefixed to the French *Encyclopédie*, might have furnished the author with a more philosophical disposition of his general and particular titles.

Of French, German, and Italian writers, the notices are scanty and meagre: but this deficiency seems to originate in want of access to the sources of information, rather than in any undue partiality to British and American names. It would, indeed, be unjustifiable to insinuate unfair prepossesion or bias on the part of a strenuous advocate for Christianity, who can thus distinguish between faith and intellectual talents:

'Should any reader be offended by the language of panegyric, which is frequently bestowed on the intellectual and scientific endowments of some distinguished abettors of heresy or of infidelity, he is entreated to remember that justice is due to all men. A man who is a bad Christian may be a very excellent mathematician, astronomer, or chemist; and one who denies or blasphemes the Saviour, may write profoundly and instructively on some branches of science highly interesting to mankind. It is proper to commiserate the mistakes of such persons, to abhor their blasphemy, and to warn men against their fatal delusions; but it is surely difficult to see either the justice or utility of withholding from them that praise of genius or of learning to which they are fairly entitled.'

Mr. Miller's regard, however, for every thing connected with the Scriptures, sometimes warps his estimate of comparative merit; as when he dwells with complacency on the writings of Hutchinson and his followers, though he terms their opinions wild and fanciful; and when he appeals to the Mosaic cosmogony as containing the true principles of geological knowlege. If, in other instances, more attention is bestowed on the state of science and literature in North America than strictly suits its proportion of notice in such a very general survey, the European reader will be disposed to pardon the minuteness of the information on account of its novelty and authenticity.

After having distinctly enumerated the five Medical Schools in the United States, Mr. M. thus concludes his review of Medicine during the eighteenth century:

'The happy influence of these institutions has been much aided by the formation of *Medical Societies* in almost every state, which have all come into being within the last forty years. The effect of such establishments in exciting a thirst for the acquisition of knowledge;

in producing a spirit of generous emulation; in cultivating a taste for observation and inquiry; and in combining the efforts and the skill of physicians in every part of our country, must be obvious to every attentive mind. Many of the *Inaugural Theses*, defended and published by the students in the American medical schools, would be considered as honourable specimens of talents and learning in the most renowned universities of Europe.

'Within the last fifteen years of the century under review, medical publications have greatly multiplied in the United States; many of which do equal honour to their authors and their country. Among these the numerous and valuable works of Dr. Rush hold the first place; and to no individual are we more indebted for promoting, both by precept and example, that laudable and enlightened zeal for medical improvements, which has been so happily increasing, for a number of years past, among American physicians. In a catalogue of our medical writers, also, Drs. Maclurg, Mitchill, Barton, Ramsay, Caldwell, Currie, and several others, would be entitled to particular notice, did not the limits of the present sketch forbid an attempt to do justice to their respective merits.

'In the year 1797 a periodical publication, under the title of the *Medical Repository*, was commenced by Drs. Mitchill, Miller, and Smith, which, from the peculiar circumstances of the country, may be considered as an important event, in noting the successive steps of medical improvement in the United States. In the premature death of the last-named gentleman, who bade fair to attain the most honourable eminence in his profession, this work sustained a great loss. It is still, however, prosecuted with undiminished excellence and success; and furnishes at once very reputable specimens of the learning, talents, and zeal, of many American physicians; and a highly useful vehicle for conveying to the public a knowledge of every improvement in the science of medicine.'

Many interesting particulars, connected with the state of literature on the other side of the Atlantic, will also be found in the third section of the twenty-sixth chapter. It is, however, admitted 'that what is called a *liberal education* in the United States is, in common, less accurate and complete; the erudition of their native citizens, with some exceptions, less extensive and profound; and the works published by American authors, in general, less learned, instructive, and elegant, than are found in Great Britain, and some of the more enlightened nations on the eastern continent.' This inferiority is ascribed to defective plans and means of instruction, to want of leisure, want of encouragement for learning, and want of books:

'Such are some of the causes which have hitherto impeded the progress of American literature. Their influence, however, is gradually declining, and the literary prospects of that country are brightening every day. Letters and science are growing more important in the public estimation. The number of learned men is becoming rapidly greater. The plans and means of instruction in their seminaries of

of learning, though by no means improving in all respects, are, in some, receiving constant melioration. The emulation of founding and sustaining a national character in science and learning begins to be more generally felt, and, from time to time, will doubtless be augmented. A larger proportion of the growing wealth of their country will hereafter be devoted to the improvements of knowledge, and especially to the furtherance of all the means by which scientific discoveries are brought within popular reach, and rendered subservient to practical utility. American publications are every day growing more numerous, and rising in respectability of character. Public and private libraries are becoming more numerous and extensive. The taste in composition among their writers is making very sensible progress in correctness and refinement. American authors of merit meet with more liberal encouragement; and when the time shall arrive that they can give to their votaries of literature the same leisure and the same stimulants to exertion with which they are favoured in Europe, it may be confidently predicted, that letters will flourish as much in America as in any part of the world; and that they will be able to make some return to their transatlantic brethren, for the rich stores of useful knowledge which they have been pouring upon them for nearly two centuries.'

It would be an easy but invidious task to note many omissions in the several divisions of this retrospect, or to call for more elevated language, and for greater depth and acuteness of remark. Where much has been effected in a very wide and diversified range, it is unreasonable to expect perfection.

The History of the Moral World, and of Political Principles and Establishments, remains to be treated in the second and third parts of the plan: but the author is chiefly solicitous to discuss the fourth and last division, which relates to the Literature, Science, and Revolutions of the Christian Church during the last century.

Muir.

Art. V. *Memoirs of the Medical Society of London*, Vol. VI. 8vo. pp. 623. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co.

Although this volume furnishes us with papers of unequal degrees of merit, it must on the whole be considered as a valuable addition to our stock of medical knowlege. We shall at least enumerate the subjects of all the communications, and shall state more particularly the result of those which are distinguished by their novelty or importance.

The first article is by Dr. Falconer of Bath, and is intitled *Sketch of the Similarity of Ancient to Modern Opinions, and Practice concerning the Morbus Cardiacus.* This similarity is fully proved by numerous quotations from the antients, compared with the opinions of the most approved modern authors. It appears that

that the old practice was discontinued in consequence of its counteracting an hypothesis that was altogether unfounded, respecting the proximate cause of the disease; and that, as experience gradually gained the ascendency over theory, the original treatment was revived, and is now generally adpoted.

We have next a case of *Angina Pectoris*, by Dr. Black of Newry. On dissection, the coronary arteries were found completely ossified through their whole course.—The 3d article contains a case of *Hydrocephalus Internus*, by Mr. Edmund Pitts Gapper, Surgeon at Ewell, cured by profuse salivation.—Dr. Thomas, of St. Kitt's, next gives an account of a *Child who, when about 5 months old, became of a blue color*, resembling that which is observed in those instances in which the respiratory organs are defective: the color gradually disappeared. We cannot agree with the author in supposing that it depended on a bilious fever which attacked the mother while she was suckling the child.

Dr. Lettsom furnishes a history of *an obstinate hepatic disease*, which, after having resisted a great variety of remedies, was removed by the occurrence of a smart feverish attack.—In the 6th article, Dr. Lee, of Jamaica, relates the *case of a Negro, who, after an operation for strangulated Hernia, was left with an artificial anus in the groin.* He remained in this state for about 12 months, when an inflammation came on in the part, the opening was closed, and the fæces were again carried off by the natural canal.—In articles 7 and 8, Mr. Smith, of Philadelphia, presents an *account of the cure of Croup by emetics;* and of *the removal of Tetanus*, succeeding to a wound in the tibia, by reproducing a discharge from the part by caustics.—In the 10th article, Dr. Marshall adduces a fact in support of the supposed *origin of Cow-pox from the grease of the horse.*

A very ingenious dissertation next occurs on *the Yaws*, by Dr. Adams; being one of the papers which obtained the Society's medal. The symptoms that occurred in a case which fell under the author's notice, while at Madeira, are minutely detailed, and the effect of remedies on them is correctly related. The quantity of mercury given in this case was so small, that it cannot be supposed to have any influence on the cure. Dr. Adams enters into a disquisition on the leprosy with which the Jews were affected during their abode in the wilderness; and from the nature of the symptoms, he concludes that it must have been the yaws.

In the 11th paper, we have an account of *an extra uterine Fœtus*, by Dr. Fothergill of Bath. The symptoms were at first supposed to proceed from dropsy in the ovarium, although the real nature of the case was ascertained for some time before the

the period of pregnancy was accomplished. It ended in the death of the mother, which event was preceded by a discharge of putrid matter from the intestinal canal; and on dissection, the skeleton of a dead child was found behind the uterus. Dr. F. concludes with some judicious observations in favour of the long controverted point, how far it may be proper, in such instances, to have recourse to the Cæsarean operation.

Mr. Dyson gives a case of *inverted Uterus after delivery*; which was safely returned into its natural state, and at a subsequent period again performed its usual functions.—Mr. Carden, of Worcester, rather vaguely relates the history of *a fatty Tumour in the Thorax*, together with a large cyst, containing serum and coagulated blood, which had produced pectoral complaints that terminated in dropsy.—The 14th article is by Mr. Field; detailing a case in which, after the patient had experienced great bodily hardship, together with a scanty supply of food, the health gradually declined, and death was produced, as the symptoms seemed to indicate, from a disease in the stomach. On dissection, however, the malady was ascertained to be in the ileum, 18 inches of which were found in a cancerous state.—We have next an account of *a mal-conformation of the Heart*, in consequence of which the blood could not become properly arterialized, and that blue color of the skin ensued, which is known to exist under similar circumstances.—Mr. Ca[illegible], of Bath, relates an instance in which *the Peroneal Artery was wounded* in a part that lies so deeply between the bones of the leg, that it could not be taken up until a portion of the fibula had been removed; amputation, the usual resource on such occasions, was thus rendered unnecessary, and the limb was restored to its former sound and healthy state.

The 17th article, communicated by Dr. Marcet, is of considerable importance. It contains a recommendation of *the white Oxyd of Bismuth for chronic pains of the Stomach*. Dr. Odier, of Geneva, has for some sime employed this mineral with success, but we believe that it had never been before used in this country. The paper relates some cases in which its good effects seem very apparent; and we think that it promises to be a valuable addition to the materia medica.

We now arrive at what we consider as the most valuable communication in the whole volume, *an Essay on the Use of the Bath Waters in Ischias*, by Dr. Falconer. The Docter begins by giving a full account of the symptoms of this disease, through all the stages of their progress, from their first commencement, when they are so slight and transient as to be little noticed, until their termination in an abscess of the hip joint; one of the most painful affections to which the human frame is incident,

cident, and in which the patient is either carried off by hectic, or, if he survive, is left with his limb shortened, and almost useless. The paper tends strongly to corroborate the idea that has been long entertained respecting the good effects of the Bath waters in this complaint; which are the more useful the earlier they are employed, and, after the suppurative stage has commenced, are no longer admissible. Leeches and blisters are sometimes found necessary to be employed together with the water; and occasionally opium and Dover's powders are beneficial adjuncts.—Dr. Falconer gives, in the form of a table, the result of all the cases which have been treated in the Bath Infirmary during a space of 16 years. The whole number, deducting those that were not deemed fair subjects for a trial, is 415; 103 of these were entirely cured, 168 received considerable benefit, 111 were materially relieved, and 33 only were dismissed without gaining any advantage.—For this paper, Dr. Falconer received a silver medal from the Society.

Dr. Smith, of New Hampshire, has contributed some remarks on *the Position of Patients during Lithotomy*. He objects to the present plan of binding down the hands to the ancles; by which posture the abdomen must be compressed, and the intestines forced towards the bladder, and thus rendered more liable to be injured.—In the 20th memoir, Dr. Broadbelt of Jamaica relates a case of *great Enlargement of the Scrotum*, which took place in a negroe, apparently in consequence of a stricture of the urethra.—On the next paper, by Dr. Bostock, of Liverpool, the Society bestowed their honorary medal. It contains an account of *two cases of Diabetes*. After an accurate enumeration of the symptoms, the author relates the result of a number of experiments which he performed on the diabetic extract, which he appears to have examined with much care: but he does not enter into any detail of the remedies employed.

Nearly all the remainder of the volume, consisting of more than 300 pages, is occupied with remarks on the *Influenza* which was so prevalent in the spring of 1803. The Society issued to their correspondents a set of queries, to which they received answers from 58 medical gentlemen in different parts of Great Britain and Ireland; and these communications are all published, without alteration: forming a valuable but confused mass of information, which we regret that the Society did not take the trouble of analyzing and arranging. One of the most characteristic symptoms of the disease was debility, which came on from the commencement of the attack, and was frequently the first circumstance that arrested the attention of the patient. It has been a subject of discussion how far the disease was contagious; for the most part, the correspondents of the Society seem

seem to consider it as not of this nature, but some very respectable practitioners adopt the contrary opinion, and support it by plausible arguments. Bos.

Art. VI. *A Clinical History of Diseases, Part First*, being, 1. A Clinical History of the Acute Rheumatism. 2. A Clinical History of the Nodosity of the Joints. By John Haygarth, M.D. F.R.S. &c. 8vo. pp. 168. 5s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

It is generally admitted that in no science is it more difficult to convey information by means of books, than in practical medicine. In some degree, this difficulty depends on the nature of the science, but a part of it must certainly be attributed to the mode which has been usually pursued by those who have attempted to instruct mankind on this subject. Most of the older authors, and many of the moderns, whose works are in the highest estimation, have been writers of systems; they have undertaken to treat of the whole circle of diseases on a regular plan; and this plan has always involved an hypothesis, which has perverted their description of the phænomena of disease, and influenced their method of cure. Another mode has, of late years, been more in fashion; viz. that of publishing single cases. At first view, this might be considered as much less exceptionable; it professes to be the simple relation of facts, and, as such, must necessarily have its due weight in the formation of opinion and the advancement of knowlege: but, unfortunately, the publication of cases has not been productive of all the advantage that might be expected from it. This failure is owing to several circumstances; perhaps the most important of which, and the only one that we shall now specify, is the fondness which every one naturally possesses for presenting something extraordinary to the world. In consequence of such a feeling, practitioners are induced not to give an account of their experience in diseases that are of frequent occurrence, or of great fatality, but of such as are uncommon; and to the same cause we may attribute an irresistible propensity, even among men of veracity, of magnifying the importance of these rare occurrences, and of placing every thing in that point of view which may excite surprise rather than impart information. The work now before us is executed on a plan in which the advantages of both the former modes are in a considerable degree combined, while their disadvantages are equally avoided. We have in it the benefit which is to be derived from generalization, united to the minuteness which is found in the relation of single cases.

Dr. Haygarth informs us in his preface, that since the year 1767, he has 'constantly recorded, in the patient's chamber, a full and accurate account of every important symptom, the remedies which were employed, and, when an opportunity offered, the effects which they produced.' After an extensive range of practice, for nearly 40 years, he has resolved to lay the result of his observations before the public; and the method which he has adopted is to analyze all his records concerning each particular disease, and to deduce from them a series of facts respecting it. Perhaps no medical writer ever proceeded on a basis of observation at once so accurate and so extensive.—The present volume contains the account of two diseases, acute rheumatism, and the nodosity of the joints; and we shall briefly notice some of the positions which Dr. H. has established on these subjects.

Out of 10,549 cases, in the higher and middle ranks of society, of which Dr. Haygarth has kept records, 470 are rheumatism, and of these 170 were attended with fever, exhibiting that form of the disease which is called *acute*. The common cause of the complaint appears to be cold, particularly when conjoined with moisture; more males are attacked than females, probably because they are more exposed to the exciting cause; and for the same reason, it is more frequent in winter and spring, than in summer and autumn. All ages, from 5 to above 60, are subject to it: but it occurs more generally between 15 and 20. The latent period, i. e. the period between the application of the cause and the appearance of the symptoms, is shorter than is commonly imagined, and sometimes there was no perceptible interval. Dr. Haygarth has not been able to perceive that any other disease precedes the acute rheumatism, or is united with it, so constantly as to imply any connection between them. The pulse is commonly above 100, and the blood when drawn exhibits a strong inflammatory crust.

With respect to the method of cure, the strict antiphlogistic plan is the one which is commonly adopted: but, as the author observes, although the disease is seldom or never fatal, it is under this treatment exceedingly protracted, and sometimes scarcely ever entirely removed. In an early period of Dr. Haygarth's professional life, he received from the late Dr. Fothergill the idea of employing bark as a remedy in acute rheumatism; and on trial he found it so beneficial that he has ever since employed it, with the greatest success. The manner in which he administers the bark we shall state in his own words:

After

'After the stomach and bowels have been sufficiently cleansed by Antimony, I have, for many years, begun to order the powder of the Peruvian Bark in doses of gr. v. x. or xv. every 2, 3, or 4 hours; and if this quantity has a salutary effect, it was gradually increased to gr. xx. xxx. or xl. with sedulous attention never to add more than what perfectly agrees. It has generally been taken in milk, mint water, or the decoction of Bark.'

He concludes by remarking;

'Except Mercury in the Syphilis, there are few or perhaps no examples where a remedy can produce such speedy relief and perfect recovery in so formidable a disease. For many years I have been thoroughly convinced that the Peruvian Bark has a much more powerful effect in the Rheumatick than any other Fever: and that it does not even cure an ague so certainly and so quickly.'

Twelve of the cases which are classed under the head of rheumatism having proved fatal, the particulars of them are related at full length; partly for the purpose of shewing that the bark was not in any way accessory to the event, and likewise that death was to be attributed to some other disease, superadded to the rheumatic affection. We have next a set of tables, in which all the phænomena of the 170 cases are accurately classed in parallel columns; so that we are able immediately to trace the history of each case by carrying the eye in one direction, or to compare the different cases with each other by moving down any one column. We highly approve this arrangement; and we cannot but regret that the author intends to discontinue it in his subsequent publications.

The nodosity of the joints, the account of which is included in the remainder of the volume, has generally been confounded with rheumatism, though, as it appears, it is clearly distinguishable from it. Thirty-four cases of it have fallen under Dr. Haygarth's observation; they were almost all females; the affection supervened about the middle period of life; and the fingers were the parts commonly affected. The seat of the disease is in the ends of the bones, and the periosteum, capsules, or ligaments of the joints; these parts gradually increase, so that the joints become distorted and useless; and sometimes they even appear to be dislocated. This complaint differs from gout, in the circumstances that the latter disease is attended with inflammation and redness of the skin and of the soft parts, and comes on in paroxysms; and it differs from rheumatism in the nature of the swellings, which are harder, more durable, and less painful. The best remedies for the nodosities of the joints appear to be the warm bath, a stream of warm water, and leeches applied to the affected part. We doubt not that these remarks of Dr. Haygarth will excite the attention of practitioners

titioners to this distressing and hitherto neglected complaint; which, we apprehend, will be found a more frequent occurrence than it is generally supposed.

ART. VII. *The Stranger in Ireland;* or a Tour in the Southern and Western Parts of that Country in the Year 1805. By John Carr, Esq., Author of *a Northern Summer, or Travels round the Baltic* *, *the Stranger in France* †, &c. 4to. pp. 530. and 17 Plates. 2l. 5s. Boards. R. Phillips.

CERTAIN tourists may be considered as literary haberdashers, or dealers in small wares; and in serving their customers, they have often the pert flippancy of haberdashers' shopmen or apprentices. They collect shreds and remnants of knowlege, which they puff off with a smirk or a smile of the most perfect complacency; and if they obtain encouragement, they will try to *sport* a commodity which they mistake for wit. What could have tempted Sir John Carr ‡ to enlist into this class of book-making ramblers? Did he conceive that any tissue would serve for a tour in Ireland, and that from him any thing would be acceptable? Sterne was vain enough to suppose that his readers would tolerate whatever flowed from his pen; and perhaps Sir John was of opinion that, if he tried sometimes to be pompous and at other times to be facetious, he should ingratiate himself with the multitude and even impose on the critic. He has artfully managed to flatter the Irish, by taking every opportunity of detecting *bulls* which are *not Irish* for the sake of shewing that the manufactory of them does not belong exlusively to the sons of Hibernia; and he marks also the striking phraseology of the low Irish, which indeed is not exceeding the province of a *Stranger in Ireland:* but we cannot tolerate his stale *Joes*, and his incessant *à propos de botte.* He contrives, when anecdotes fail him, to advert to some trivial circumstance which happily reminds him of something that was said or done in another place, and that was worth relating; and, as a good thing cannot be told too often, he obligingly communicates it to his reader. To expand his narrative, also, he collects hear-say tales, right hand and left, without perplexing himself with the consideration of their probability or improbability.

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* See M. Rev. Vol. xlviii. N. S. p. 133.

† Ibid. Vol xli. p. 393.

‡ The contents of this volume seem to have been so gratifying to the Irish nation, and to the Vice-Roy, that the latter has been induced to bestow the honour of knighthood on its author.

In

In the writer's serious accounts and remarks, however, we often find much to applaud; and though he be generally desultory, and frequently incorrect, his pen is guided by humanity, and by a desire of promoting the improvement of the country which he attempts to describe. Impressed with the conviction that the people of Ireland have laboured under the foulest misrepresentations and aspersions, he laudably exerts himself to render them justice; and he notices the hardships by which they are oppressed, and the defective policy of government, not for the purpose of irritating their feelings, but in order to advance the important object of their amelioration. If our gravity was disturbed by his recollections of stale jokes and anecdotes, we were made amends by his judicious concluding general remarks; some of which, in the course of this article, we shall transcribe.

North Wales having been the vestibule to Ireland on this occasion, the tourist first honours the land of Cambro-Britain with his remarks. The pencil indeed is not here employed, but he draws the landscape of the vale of Llangollen *in prose*, scattering the gayest colours from his pen. He also tells us an incredible anecdote of a man in the stage-coach; and he repeats another, which is said to have occurred at Paris, in which Mr. Bolton is made the victorious exhibitor, in a contest with a Frenchman for the superiority of British manufactures; though we apprehend that the story, whether a fact or a fiction, was in circulation long prior to Mr. Bolton's celebrated manufactures of Soho. Here likewise he met with a gentleman from Middlesex, who furnished him with the *first bull*; a commodity which, he assures us at the end of the volume, he never once discovered in Ireland, and which he believes is as scarce there as murders, though in our newspapers that island is celebrated for both. So desirous is he of exonerating the Irish from the imputation of bull-making, or at least of bringing other nations, both antient and modern, to participate with them in a propensity to blundering, that he attempts, on the following line,

"*Moriamur, et in media arma ruamus,*"

to convict Virgil of having made *a bull*: but we see none: a resolution is proposed, and then the mode of carrying that resolution into effect.

Ireland is entered by the Bay of Dublin; and to compensate for the absence of *a bull*, the author obliges us with a miracle, for he tells us that the vessel 'passed *through* two great sand-banks.'—The scene is thus described:

'As we entered the bay of Dublin, a brilliant sun, and almost cloudless sky, unfolded one of the finest land and sea prospects I ever

beheld. "The mountains shewed their grey heads, the blue face of Ocean smiled, the white wave was seen tumbling round the distant rock." On the right was the rugged hill of Howth, with its rocky bays, wanting only a volcano to afford to the surrounding scenery the strongest resemblance, as I was well informed, to the beautiful bay of Naples; whilst, nearer to the eye, at the extremity of a white line of masonry just fringing the sea, the light-house presented its alabaster front. On our left were the town of Dalkey, with its romantic rocks, mutilated castles, martello towers, with their gay little streamers, elegant villas, and the picturesque town of Dunleary; whilst behind was seen a line of parks and plantations, above which the mountains of Wicklow ascended with the greatest majesty. Whilst I stood enraptured with the richness of the scenery, a good-humoured Irish sailor came up to me, and, with a smile of delight, said, "By Jasus, your honour! your're right there; it is God's own country;' nodding at the same time at me.'—

'For want of towers and spires, the capital excites but little impression of its magnitude and consequence at a distance. The harbour has been very much protected, on the south side of the river, by a prodigious mole or stone-wall, called the South Wall, formed of large blocks of mountain granite braced with iron, and strongly cemented. This wonderful monument of human ingenuity and enterprize, which may rank with some of the finest remains of Roman magnificence, extends nearly three miles into the bay from Ringsend. From the King's Watch house it runs to the Block-house, which is distant seven thousand nine hundred and thirty-eight feet; and from thence to the Light-house, at the extremity of the wall, nine thousand eight hundred and sixteen feet. It rises about five feet above high water, is nearly forty feet broad as far as the Block-house, and from thence to the Light-house twenty-eight feet broad, narrowing from a base of about thirty-two feet broad. This stupendous work was begun in 1748, and completed in seven years. As we turned the Light-house, I was much gratified by its appearance: it is a round tower of white hewn granite of three stories high, gradually tapering to the summit, on which is raised an octagonal lantern of eight windows, the powerful light of which is encreased by *reflecting lenses*. A stone staircase, with an iron ballustrade, winds round the building to the second story, where an iron gallery surrounds the whole. It was commenced on the first of June 1762, in consequence of a statute of Queen Anne, called the Ballast Act. By depositing huge rocks in a vast caissoon which was sunk in the sea, the ingenious architect, Mr. Smyth, has been able to raise this beautiful structure, and to give it the consistency of rock, in a situation peculiarly exposed to the raging elements. As we sailed in smooth water on the inner side of the Mole, it strongly reminded me of passing by the wonderful embankments which I had seen on the sides of the Neva. Before I land, let me recommend the Union Packet as infinitely the swiftest sailing vessel in the service *. Our vessel was able to lie along side of the Pidgeon-house, where we quitted that consumma-

* Has the author sailed in all of them? *Rev.*

tion

tion of human misery, *a cabin after a short voyage*; and, upon landing, after our luggage had again been submitted to search, and to an imposition of three shillings in the shape of a custom-house fee, we entered a long coach, drawn by four wretched horses, which attends upon the packets, and proceeded towards the capital, distant about three miles.'

In this extract, for *reflecting lenses*, the tourist should have written *magnifying lenses*: a lens is a dioptric, and not a catoptric glass.

A visit to the Museum induces the author to display his *knowlege* and his amiability. We are informed that 'the Romans first constructed their boats from the shell of the nautilus, which is a *siphon throughout*;' (quere, were the Roman boats siphons throughout?) and when he approaches Venus's shell, he utters this apostrophe, which must electrify all the Ladies of the United Kingdom, from Devonshire to the *Ultima Thule*: 'If I pass over Venus's cockle, without paying my homage to the beautiful shell, may I never love or be loved!' Yet, not sure that this one exclamation would be sufficient to enthrone him in the good opinion of the ladies, he professes himself in the next page ready to 'swear on the altar of Cupid.' What a courteous knight!

When the author visits the cathedral of St. Patrick's, Dean Swift becomes of course the prominent object. His epitaph is copied; and the melancholy reverse of his brilliant genius is an unavoidable source of reflection with a man of letters: but Sir John Carr should have known that the line in which his fate is so feelingly described,

"And Swift expires a driv'ller and a show,"

occurs not in Pope's works, but in Johnson's Vanity of Human Wishes.

We are apprehensive that the tourist was sometimes too inattentive to the accuracy of his information; for in his visit to the town of Black Rock, four miles from Dublin, he mentions land in its neighbourhood, so 'very rich and valuable as to let from ten to *twenty-five* pounds per acre.' Black Rock is compared to Clapham Common: but we question whether land at Clapham Common lets for half this price.

In treating of Dublin, the author makes many just observations on the deplorable state of the Irish coinage, the evils resulting from it, the circulation of paper-money, and the course of exchange between Ireland and this country; and to the instances already before the public, of the mischief occasioned to trade by the want of silver coin, he adds several which occurred within his own knowlege.—His discussion of this subject is too long for quotation. G. 2.

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One of Sir John's *anecdotes* occurs in mentioning a peculiarity in the names of places in Ireland, which may perhaps obtain a corner in a new edition of our jest books:—*ex. gr.*

'We passed through Dundrum, a very pretty village about three miles and a half from Dublin. Near the four mile stone is Moreen, a very picturesque situation: it is remarkable for a desperate battle which was fought some centuries since by two neighbouring families, who, having satiated their revenge, very piously erected a church in the valley where the battle was fought; but whether in expiation of their infuriated rage, or to perpetuate the history of it, antient story does not tell. Not far from Moreen, is the castle and church of Kilgobbin. The frequent recurrence of names of places beginning with *kill*, is not a little alarming to a stranger in Ireland, more especially if he be under the influence of those stupid prejudices which have been excited against that country. I have just enumerated, in my memory, *no less* (not fewer) than forty nine of those *kill* places. The name produced the following ridiculous mistake: when some of our militia regiments were in Ireland during the rebellion, a soldier, a native of Devonshire, who was stationed at an out-post, stopped a countryman, and demanded who he was, *whence* he came *from*, and whither he was going: The fellow replied: "And my name, my dear honey, is Tullyhog; and, dy'e see, I am just been to *Killmanny*, and am going to *Killmore*." Upon which the sentinel immediately seized him, expecting to receive a high reward for having apprehended a most sanguinary rebel, by confession just come from murder, and going to a fresh banquet of blood.'

The chapter which includes Arklow notices the battle fought there during the late rebellion, and the subsequent simplicity of an Irish peasant; to which the author adds an instance of his own simplicity, by relating, as an event of yesterday, a story long since invented to ridicule a country clown:

'A whimsical circumstance happened here during the rebellion. A soldier, who was on guard, got into conversation with a raw countryman, and taking advantage of his simplicity, agreed with him for the sale of his sentry-box: the simple clown paid the amount of the purchase, and came the next morning with his car and horse for it. "What are you doing there?" said a fresh sentinel. "And, by Jasus, I'm come to remove this *little bit of shelter*, and plaze you," said the boor. The same spirit of simplicity is displayed in the following instance, which occurred not long since: A letter was received at the General Post-office, London, directed, "To my son in London?" the next morning a gawky thumped at the Post-office window, and said, "has my mother sent me a letter?" of course the letter received was immediately delivered to him.'

In like manner, the farmer's reply to the man who reproved him for tying his plough to the horses' tails, "they are used to it," reminds this facetious gentleman of a similar answer from a rat-

a rat-catcher respecting the sowing up of the mouths of his ferrets; and we are surprized that he had not also retailed the same remark of the *poissarde* when skinning eels.

On the road to Wicklow, the traveller passes some mountains containing copper ore; and in these were observed 'several hollow squares, like baths, partly filled with divisions, in which plates of iron were deposited; the *vitriolic* particles of which are attracted by a stream strongly impregnated with *vitriolic* water which flows into them, and leaves a sediment of copper.' The fact is correct: but the operation is not performed by vitriolic particles being attracted by vitriolic water. The elective attraction, which takes place by placing iron in copper streams, has often been explained.

As it would be impossible for us regularly to attend this rambler to the numerous places included in his route, or to notice the multitude of objects on which he descants, we shall deem it sufficient to specify that, besides the capital, he visited the considerable towns of Limerick and Cork; that he enjoyed the scenery of the Dargle and of the Upper and Lower lake of Killarney; that he describes the nature of the country and the state of society; and that with national institutions he sketches national manners.

From the visit to the lake of Killarney, we expected some gratification: but the writer dismisses his account of this beautiful spot in the following unsatisfactory manner:

'The morning after our return from Dunlow castle, we set off for the upper lake: it was still and serene, and the vapours hung upon the summits of the mountains in the most fantastic shapes. Below, every thing was clear and tranquil: I never before saw reflexion in the water so perfect: and the echoes, upon the bugle being blown, were remarkably distinct. We passed O'Donahue's prison, an insulated rock, which has been much fretted by the waves: tradition says that the prince of that name used to chain his rebellious subjects to it. I saw several rocks which had been so eaten through by the action of the air and water, that they presented the appearanee of dissected vertebræ.

'In Mucruss lake there is a rock exactly resembling a horse in the act of drinking. As every island in these lakes has some traditionary history attached to it, and as there are no less [*not fewer*] than thirty four islands, I will spare my reader the labour of attending to them. We doubled the point of Ross Island, and, at a distance, saw the machines for working the copper-mines lately discovered there.

'Glenaa, always the great object of the lakes, and whom I had never contemplated before so closely, notwithstanding his spoliation, rose with uncommon majesty before us: upon his rocky and indented shores, the finest arbutus, or strawberry-trees, were in berry and blossom too; whilst its southern side presented a varied covering of the tops of oak, ash, pine, birch-trees, and alder; white-thorn, yew, and holly,

holly, growing wild, and blending their different greens with great luxuriance: here, a neat little cottage peeped upon us from some unexpected openings: there, the smoke, curling above the tree tops, pointed to its concealment; whilst groupes of grazing cattle enlivened the whole. From a solid detached rock, apparently without any soil, we remarked a yew tree growing. In Russian Finland, I remember having seen several firs growing, without any vegetable mould, upon the tops of masses of granite; they were supported by long fibrous roots which clasped the rock, and which I was able to overturn with ease.'

Respecting the city and trade of Cork, these particulars are stated:

'Cork exports more beef, tallow, hides, butter, fish, and other provisions, than Belfast, Waterford, or Limerick; her other exports are linen cloth, pork, calves, lambs, rabbit-skins, wool for England, linen, and wollen yarn and worsted. The slaughtering season commences in September, and continues to the latter end of January, during which time it has been computed that no less [*not fewer*] than one hundred thousand head of black cattle have been killed and cured.

'The provision trade has not been carried on for these last three or four years with the same spirit, and to the same extent, as formerly, owing in a great measure to the business having become more general in the other sea-ports of Ireland than before: yet a much larger quantity of provision was made up in Cork last season than the year preceding; but if it be considered that the greater portion was intended for the use of government, and that the price of cattle has been much too high in proportion to the prices allowed by government for the manufactured provisions, it may easily be inferred that the trade could not be very productive to those concerned.

'The Union has not as yet produced any visible effects upon the trade of Cork; but, from the best information I could procure, it is expected that in time that great political measure will be followed by salutary consequences to Cork.

'The price of land in the neighbourhood of this city varies from three pounds to ten pounds per acre of English statute measure.

'Upon the banks of the river, and towards the harbour's mouth, on account of the convenience for bathing, the land, without being rich, is very high in value. Within these last ten years, rent has tripled: the price of labour in this part of Ireland has advanced greatly within these few years; but the comforts of the lower orders have not "grown with its growth," in consequence of the prices of the necessaries of life keeping equal pace with the advance of wages, which in these parts are now from sixteenpence or eighteenpence per day.

'Tillage in the immediate neighbourhood of Cork, and in the southern parts of the country, has been latterly much promoted, in consequence of the breweries and distilleries consuming such an immense quantity of barley and oats, whilst the large quantity of wheat and flour used in the market, both for home consumption and exportation, has greatly excited the farmers to the cultivation of the former. The

rigorous

rigorous exaction of the hearth-money tax has been much complained of amongst the poor, but as the legislature is about to annul it, all farther comment would be unnecessary.

'The relative proportion of catholics to protestants, in this and in all the cities of Munster, is full four to one; in the interior of the country it is ten to one; almost all the common people are of the first description, as well as the respectable merchants of the city.

'Under the term protestants are comprehended all separatists from the catholic communion: the established church in this part of Ireland has very few followers; the methodists, on the contrary, are rapidly increasing.

'It is with uncommon satisfaction that I am enabled to state, from indubitable authority, that the catholic clergy in this city, and throughout the province, are by their public and private virtue and deportment, eminently entitled to the thanks and admiration of the government. In the discharge of their high vocation, they have laboured to remove the prejudices of the poor and unenlightened catholic, have placed his religious happiness on the side of his social duties, and united his faith to the repose of his country. Since the unfortunate era of 1798, the tranquillity of Cork has been remarkable.

'Although catholic landholders in this country are not very numerous at present, as the character of the city is purely commercial, no doubt the catholic landed interest will be much extended, by catholics investing their fortunes, in future, in the purchase of land.'

We shall now extract the author's highly-coloured summary of the Irish character:

'With few materials for ingenuity to work with, the peasantry of Ireland are most ingenious, and with adequate inducements laboriously indefatigable; they possess, in general, personal beauty and vigour of frame; they abound with wit and sensibility, although all the avenues to useful knowledge are closed against them; they are capable of forgiving injuries, and are generous even to their oppressors; they are sensible of superior merit, and submissive to it; they display natural urbanity in rags and penury, are cordially hospitable, ardent for information, social in their habits, kind in their disposition, in gaiety of heart and genuine humour unrivalled, even in their superstition presenting an union of pleasantry and tenderness; they are warm and constant in their attachments; faithful and incorruptible in their engagements; innocent with the power of sensual enjoyment perpetually within their reach; observant of sexual modesty, though crowded in the narrow limits of a cabin; strangers to a crime which reddens the cheek of manhood with horror; tenacious of respect; acutely sensible of, and easily won by kindnesses. Such is the peasantry of Ireland: I appeal not to the affections or the humanity, but to the justice of every one to whom chance may direct these pages, whether men so constituted present no character which a wise government can mould to the great purpose of augmenting the prosperity of the country, and the happiness of society. Well might Lord

Lord Chesterfield, when Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, exclaim, "God has done every thing for this country, man nothing."

Having had sufficient evidence of the degraded condition of the low Irish, and witnessed with concern their propensity to whisky-drinking, with the encouragement which it receives from the inordinate sale of this liquid poison, the author offers, in his general remarks at the conclusion, some very useful hints on the subjects of Education, Priests, Absentees, Agents, Cabins, unlicensed Distilleries, Porter-breweries, Courts of Justice, Oaths, &c. adding the following reasons to enforce his observations:

'Heaven never committed to any government the care of a country upon which she has been more prodigally bountiful: for, independently of the genius of the people, Ireland throughout rests upon a bed of the richest manure: towards the sea she has sand, shells, and weed: inland, she abounds with limestone gravel, limestone marl, and other natural manures: her rivers and surrounding seas are all propitious to commerce, and are open to all the quarters of the world. The Shannon, the Liffey, the Lee, the Suir, the Bann, the Boyne, the Blackwater, and other rivers, her creeks, her numerous, vast, and beautiful lakes abound with fish of various descriptions, and with little assistance from the hand of man, can be formed into canals, which might easily unite the centre with the extremities of the island: upon the seas which surround her, vessels from the most distant regions can approach her indented coasts in the most tempestuous weather with safety: within a circuit of seven hundered and fifty miles, it has been estimated that she possesses sixty-six secure harbours. The fertility of the country, with a slender exception, is uncommonly luxuriant; her climate is soft and salubrious, her bogs demonstrate her former consequence, and can be, and are rapidly reclaiming; an inexhaustible stratum of coal is ready to supply its turf; and her peasantry, without having tasted much of happiness and prosperity, possess all the essential qualities by which both are deserved, and can be enjoyed and promoted.

'Upon this country a new Aurora has shed her purple light. A jealous, angry, and mistaken policy is yielding to reason, gentleness, and toleration. Under the mild administration of a Hardwicke, Ireland felt new confidence, and the hope of better days; that confidence will be rewarded, and those hopes realized under the auspices of the present government, which has displayed at once its paternal care and its wisdom, by confiding the destinies of that country to a nobleman of the most expanded and liberal mind, of the highest rank, and the most splendid fortune, and who has devoted himself to a science and to a course of investigation essential to the prosperity of all countries, but peculiarly to that over which he presides; it would here be superfluous to name the present illustrious descendant of the house of Russell.'

This volume, like its predecessors, is embellished with *aqua tinta* engravings, and with a map of Killarney; which

form an acceptable illustration of the letter-press, by giving views of country scenery and seats, towns, and public buildings.

Mo-y.

ART. VIII. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London, for the Year* 1806. Part II. 4to. 17s. 6d. sewed. Nicol.

Papers on CHEMISTRY *and* NATURAL HISTORY.

ACCOUNT of a Discovery of Native Minium: in a Letter from James Smithson, *Esq. F.R.S. to Sir Joseph Banks, Bart. P.R.S.*—Mr. Smithson here announces the discovery of minium, or the red oxyd of lead, as a natural production; and which was found mixed with the carbonate of zinc. He supposes that it is formed from the decay of the sulphuret of lead, as he observed some crystals of this substance, which were externally covered with minium. It is not stated where the oxyd was found, but the paper is dated from Cassell.

Description of a rare Species of Worm Shells, discovered in an Island lying off the North-West Coast of the Island of Sumatra in the East Indies. By J. Griffiths, *Esq. Communicated by* Sir Joseph Banks.—In the year 1797, a considerable earthquake took place in the island of Sumatra; and during the agitation which ensued in the adjoining parts of the ocean, a bank of mud was laid bare, on which were discovered a number of shells, remarkable for their size and their peculiar conformation. They were tubular, and irregularly tapering; some of the largest of them were above 5 feet long; and the circumference at the base was 9 inches, and that of the smaller end 2½ inches. A more particular account of their organization, and of their relation to other marine animals, is given in the subsequent paper.

Observations on the Shell of the Sea Worm found on the Coast of Sumatra, proving it to belong to a Species of Teredo; with an Account of the Anatomy of the Teredo navalis. By E. Home, *Esq. F.R.S.*—The animal described in the preceding paper having fallen under the inspection of Mr. Home, he conjectured that it belonged to the genus *Teredo*; and in order to ascertain the truth of his opinion, he procured some living specimens of the *Teredo navalis*. He presents us with a minute and interesting description of the anatomy of this singular animal, but it would be scarcely intelligible without a reference to the plates.—He points out a peculiarity in its sanguiferous system. The heart admits only of a single circulation, as is the case with all the animals that breathe under water: but in the teredines, the

the blood, after it has left the heart, is immediately distributed to the different parts of the body, and is afterward collected in the respiratory organs before it returns to the heart. As the animal possesses no cavity for the reception of water, its respiratory organs are placed on its surface. No nervous system could be discovered: but the organization is in many respects so perfect, that the existence of a brain and nerves seems probable; although, from the substance of which the animal is composed, we are not able to distinguish the medullary matter.

A portion of the wood which these worms destroy was always found in their stomach: but, from several circumstances, it is rendered probable that this substance does not contribute to their nutrition; and that they are supported entirely by the medium of the sea-water. The animal which was found at Sumatra differs from the common *Teredo* in being imbedded in mud: but it agrees with it so far in its general structure and appearance, that Mr. Home does not hesitate to consider it as a *Teredo*; and from its size he gives it the specific name of *Gigantea*.—This and the preceding paper are accompanied by characteristic and well delineated plates.

On the inverted Action of the alburnous Vessels of Trees. By Thomas Andrew Knight, *Esq. F.R.S.*—In his former memoirs, on the Physiology of Vegetables, Mr. Knight had endeavoured to prove that the sap of plants rises through the alburnous vessels, circulates through the extremities during the summer, and, after being in part expended on the growth of the plant, the remainder passes down the bark, and is deposited in the roots. A fact, however, is mentioned by Duhamel and Hales, which Mr. Knight himself has verified by experiment, and which seemed to militate against this hypothesis. If a circular portion of the bark be removed from the stem of a tree, the part below the wound continues to live, and even to increase in size; a small ring is also formed about the lower lip of the wound; and it makes some advance towards the upper part, although the upper lip throws out a much greater quantity of woody matter. Mr. K. supposes that this growth in the lower part is occasioned by an inverted action in the alburnous vessels, in consequence of which a small portion of the sap passes through them, at the same time that a considerable part of it is retained in the cortical vessels above the wound.

To establish the fact of the inverted action of the alburnous vessels is the principal object of the present paper; and in order to prove this point, the author selected the potatoe, being a plant in which the vessels that convey the ascending sap to the leaves,

and

and those by which it descends, are in distinct organs. He first made an experiment, in which, by preventing the formation of the tubers, the upper part of the plant was rendered much more luxuriant and prolific; in this manner shewing that the sap was carried from the leaves and stems down to the tubers. He afterward, in a second experiment, carefully removed the whole of the bark from several of the stems, and yet he found that the tubers were produced, although they were of smaller than ordinary bulk. Hence he concluded that his position respecting the inverted action of the alburnous vessels is proved; since, in the latter experiment, no other passage appears by which the sap could be conveyed from the upper to the lower parts of the plant.—We admit that the reasoning is plausible; yet we must be permitted to add that the hypothesis will require the aid of more experiments, before it can be considered as absolutely established.

Description of the Mineral Basin in the Counties of Monmouth, Glamorgan, Brecon, Carmarthen, and Pembroke. By Mr. Edw. Martin.—The large cavity described in this paper is said to be composed of limestone, and to be the reservoir in which all the coal and iron ore of South Wales is deposited. Mr. Martin gives an apparently accurate account of its extent, and of the number and thickness of the different strata which it contains.

Observations on the Camel's Stomach, respecting the Water it contains, and the Reservoirs in which that Fluid is inclosed; with an Account of some Peculiarities in the Urine. By E. Home, *Esq. F.R.S.*—The peculiar property in the camel's stomach, by which it is enabled to take in a large stock of water before it commences its journies across the deserts, has been long known: but the exact structure and mechanism of the part have never yet been fully ascertained. Mr. Home's paper, however, has now furnished us with a clear and interesting account of this curious piece of comparative anatomy. In order to illustrate the subject, he begins by describing the digestive organs of the ox; which, in many respects, agree with those of the camel in their disposition and uses. In the ox, the first and second stomachs are included in one general cavity; the drink passes immediately into the second stomach; and it is from this cavity that the food is projected into the mouth, in order to undergo the second mastication. When the food is again swallowed, it is immediately carried to the third stomach; and after having been detained there for some time, it passes into the fourth, which is the immediate organ of digestion. The camel has the same number of cavities with the ox, and their general

disposition is considerably similar. The food, however, does not seem to pass into the second stomach before it is returned into the mouth, but is ejected from a particular part of the first; and after having been chewed, it is directly returned into the third. The drink passes into the second stomach, and, when this is filled, runs over into that part of the first in which the food is lodged; and it would appear that the animal has a voluntary power of discharging the water from the second stomach, so as to moisten the food in the first. When the cud has been chewed, it descends directly to the second stomach, and passes immediately into the fourth.—The apparatus by which these actions are performed is well explained, and illustrated by some good engravings.

The experiments on the urine, as here communicated by Mr. Hatchett, were performed by Mr. Brande. He was not able to detect any benzoic acid, but he found a little of the uric; and he discovered in it the phosphat of lime. This was likewise found in the urine of the cow; and these fluids agreed, moreover, in not containing any salts composed of soda. Yet these latter salts exist in the urine of the horse and the ass, which again differs from that of the other animals in not exhibiting any traces of the ammoniacal salts.

Bos.

In mentioning the mode of killing the camel which was the subject of these experiments, by *pithing*, Mr. Home points out the erroneous manner in which this operation is often executed, and which has led to the discouragement of the practice:

'The operation was performed with a narrow double-edged poniard passed in between the skull and first vertebra of the neck; in this way the medulla oblongata was divided, and the animal instantaneously deprived of sensibility. In the common mode of pithing cattle, the medulla spinalis only is cut through, and the head remains alive, which renders it the most cruel mode of killing animals that could be invented.'

G.2.

Mathematics, Astronomy, &c.

Observations upon the Marine Barometer, made during the Examination of the Coasts of New Holland and South Wales, in the Years 1801, 1802, *and* 1803. *By* Matthew Flinders, *Esq. Commander of his Majesty's Ship Investigator.*—If there be any connection between the wind and weather and the variations of the barometer, it is certainly most desirable that seamen should be acquainted with the laws of that connection: but it is evident that they can only be ascertained by long, patient, and careful observation.

In the paper before us, Capt. Flinders furnishes some valuable remarks, which, as far as they go, will be useful to the mariner; and

and if other navigators make observations, and cause them like the present to be registered, we shall gradually accumulate sufficient conditions and data for a theory and a system:—some future philosopher may arise who will arrange, compare, and combine the facts which he finds recorded.

On the necessity for every officer being provided with a barometer, Capt. F. says:

'The barometer seems capable of affording so much assistance to the commander of a ship, in warning him of the approach and termination of bad weather, and of changes in the direction of the wind, even in the present state of meteorological knowledge, that no officer in a long voyage should be without one. Some experience is required to understand its language, and it will always be necessary to compare the state of the mercury with the appearance of the weather, before its prognostications will commonly be understood; for a rise may foretel an abatement of wind,—a change in its direction,—or the return of fine weather, or if the wind is light and variable, it may foretel its increase to a steady breeze, especially if there is any easting in it; and a fall may prognosticate a strong breeze or gale, a change of wind, the approach of rain, or the dying away of a steady breeze. Most seamen are tolerably good judges of the appearance of the weather; and this judgment assisted by observation upon the quick or slower rising or falling of the mercury, and upon its relative height, will in most cases enable them to fix upon which of these changes are about to take place, and to what extent, where there is only one; but a combination of changes will be found more difficult, especially where the effect of one upon the barometer is counteracted by the other; as for instance, the alteration of a moderate breeze from the westward with dull, or rainy weather, to a fresh breeze from the eastward with fine weather, may not cause any alteration in the height of the mercury; though I think there would usually be some rise in this case. Many combinations of changes might be mentioned, in which no alteration in the barometer would be expected, as a little consideration, or experience in the use of this instrument, will make sufficiently evident; the barometer alone, therefore, is not sufficient; but in assisting the judgment of the seaman, is capable of rendering very important services to navigation.'

A new Demonstration of the Binomial Theorem, when the Exponent is a positive or negative Fraction. By the Rev. Abram Robertson, *A. M. F.R.S., Savilian Professor of Geometry at Oxford.*—Since the invention of the law of the binomial theorem, frequent attempts have been made to demonstrate it on clear and exact principles; and the author of the present demonstration has already inserted one somewhat similar, in a preceding volume of the Transactions (viz. that for 1794.) We shall briefly state the principle on which the proof before us is founded.

If m, m', be integer numbers, then it is easily proved that

$$(1+v)^m = 1 + mv + \frac{m.m-1}{2} v^2 + \&c.$$

$$(1+v)^{m'} = 1 + m'v + \frac{m'm'-1}{2} v^2 + \&c.$$

If these series be multiplied together, there results a series

$$1 + Av + A'v^2 + A''v^3 + \&c.$$

in which

$$A = m + m'$$

$$A' = \frac{m^2 + m'^2 - \overline{m+m'} + 2mm'}{2} = \frac{(m+m')\ (m+m'-1)}{2}$$

$$A'' = \frac{(m+m')\ (m+m'-1)\ (m+m'-2)}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} \&c.$$

Now although the formulas for $(1+v)^m\ (1+v)^n$ have been deduced on the supposition of m, m' being whole numbers, yet if such series as $1 + mv +$ &c. and $1 + m'v$ &c. be multiplied together, values of A, A', A'', will be precisely the same with *regard to form*, whatever m, m' are, and consequently will be the same if m, m' be fractions. 'The actual multiplications,' says Mr. R. 'will end in the same powers of m and m', the same combinations of them, and the same numerals, whether we consider m and m' as whole numbers or as fractions.'—By virtue of this property, if $1 + \frac{1}{4}v + \frac{1}{2}.\frac{1}{4}.\overline{\frac{1}{4}-1}v^2 +$ &c. be assumed the 4th root of $1+v$; then, if we multiply this series into itself, the result will be $1 + \frac{2}{4}v + \frac{1}{2}.\frac{2}{4}\left(\frac{2}{4}-1\right)v^2 +$ &c.; and if this series be multiplied into itself, the result will be

$$1 + \frac{4}{4}v + \frac{1}{3}\frac{4}{4}\overline{\frac{4}{4}-1}v^2 + \&c.$$
$$= 1 + \frac{4}{4}v$$
$$= 1 + v$$

and consequently, the 4th root of $1+v$ was rightly assumed.

A similar method may be used for the 1th root. Now, if this demonstration of the binomial has any claim to originality, it must be in the remark relative to the property of the coefficients A, A', A'', &c. remaining the same in regard to form, whatever be the indices.—In the 19th volume of the *Novi Commentarii Petropol.* we have a demonstration of the binomial by Euler; and in the summary which always precedes the memoirs themselves, the reporter thus speaks of Euler's solution:

" $1 + nx +$ &c. *de quâ quidem serie constat, eam casu n numeri integri æqualem esse* $(1+x)^n$, *generatim, vero hujus seriei valorem indicandum, indicat*

indicat Illust. Auctor signo [*n*]. *Quodsi nunc duo talia signa* [*m*] [*n*] *in se invicem ducantur, et productum exprimi supponatur per seriem*

$$1 + Ax + Bx^2 + \&c.$$

coefficientes A, B, C, per litteras m et n determinari evidens est, patetque modum quo hæc determinatio sit, ab indole *m* et *n* non pendere, *ideoq. eundem esse sive m, n, supponantur integri, sin fracti. At si m, n, numeri integri, est omnino*

$$[m]\ [n] = (1+x)^{m+n} = [m+n]$$

unde generatim quoque

$$[m]\ [n] = [m+n]$$" &c. &c.

If we consult the memoir itself, we shall find that the method of demonstration essentially rests on this principle: "*hic autem imprimis observari convenit, hanc compositiones rationem non* ab indole literarum *m* et *n* pendere, *sed perinde se esse habituram, sive hæ literæ* m *et* n *denotent* numeros integros, sive alios numeros quoscunque. *Hoc ratiocinium non vulgare probe notetur, quonium ei tota vis nostræ demonstrationis innititur.*"—We think that these extracts prove, beyond the possibility of a doubt, that the principle of Mr. Robertson's demonstration is precisely the same with that which was adopted by Euler thirty years ago. It is not our wish, on the sameness of the principle and the simplicity of the two demonstrations, to found a charge of plagiarism against Mr. R.: but he must abandon all claim to originality or priority of invention; which must be awarded to Euler.

The honor of the invention, however, does not deserve to be violently contested. Euler's demonstration, when reduced to plainness from his uncouth symbols, is not a *direct* demonstration: he assumes a series for the case in which the index is a fraction, and then proves that this series was rightly assumed: this is very different from assuming

$$(1+x)^n = 1 + ax + bx^2 + \&c.$$

and then deducing $b = a.\frac{n-1}{2}\,1\ c = b.\frac{n-2}{3}$, &c.

New Method of computing Logarithms. *By* Thomas Manning, *Esq.*

'If there already existed (says the author) as full and extensive logarithmic tables as will ever be wanted, and of whose accuracy we were absolutely certain, and if the evidence for that accuracy could remain unimpaired throughout all ages, then any new method of computing logarithms would be totally superfluous so far as concerns the formation of tables, and could only be valuable indirectly, inasmuch as it might shew some curious and new views of mathematical truth. But this kind of evidence is not in the nature of human affairs. Whatever is recorded is no otherwise believed than on the evidence of testi-

mony; and such evidence weakens by the lapse of time, even while the original record remains; and it weakens on a twofold account, if the record must from time to time be replaced by copies. Nor is this destruction of evidence arising from the uncertainty of the copy's being accurately taken, any where greater than in the case of copied numbers.

'It is useful then to contrive new and easy methods for computing not only new tables, but even those we already have. It is useful to contrive methods by which any part of a table may be verified independently of the rest; for by examining parts taken at random, we may in some cases satisfy ourselves of its accuracy, as well as by examining the whole.

'Among the various methods of computing logarithms, none, that I know of possesses this advantage of forming them with tolerable ease independently of each other by means of a few easy bases. This desideratum, I trust, the following method will supply, while at the same time it is peculiarly easy of application, requiring no division, multiplication, or extraction of roots, and has its relative advantages highly increased by increasing the number of decimal places to which the computation is carried.

'The chief part of the working consists in merely setting down a number under itself removed one or more places to the right, and subtracting, and repeating this operation; and consequently is very little liable to mistake. Moreover, from the commodious manner in which the work stands, it may be revised with extreme rapidity. It may be performed after a few minutes instruction by any one who is competent to subtract. It is as easy for large numbers as for small; and on an average about 27 subtractions will furnish a logarithm accurately to 10 places of decimals. In general $9 \times \frac{n+1}{2}$ subtractions will be accurate to $2n$ places of decimals.'

The method employed may be thus stated: suppose x to be any number, then

$$x - \frac{x}{\alpha} = \frac{\alpha - 1}{\alpha} \cdot x = r$$

again; $r - \frac{r}{\alpha} = \frac{\alpha - 1}{\alpha} r = r'$

&c. and so on, suppose, to r'' r'''.

Again; $r^{IV} - \frac{r^{IV}}{\beta} = \frac{\beta - 1}{\beta} r^{IV} = r^{V}$

$$r^{V} - \frac{r^{V}}{\beta} = \frac{r^{V}(\beta - 1)}{\beta} = r^{VI} \text{ \&c. and so on.}$$

Hence if we stop at r^{VI}

$$x = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha - 1} r = \frac{\alpha^2}{(\alpha - 1)^2} r^{I} = \frac{\alpha^5}{(\alpha - 1)^5} r^{IV} = \frac{\alpha^5}{(\alpha - 1)^5} \frac{\beta}{\beta - 1} r^{V} \text{ \&c.}$$

$$r^{b} \&c. = \frac{\alpha^5}{(\alpha-1)^5} \cdot \frac{\beta^2}{(\beta-1)^2} r^{vi}$$

$$\text{Hence } h.\log. x = 5\, h.l \frac{\alpha}{\alpha-1} + 2\, h.l \frac{\beta}{\beta-1} + h.l.\, r^{vi}$$

$$= 5\left\{\frac{1}{\alpha} + \frac{1}{2}\cdot\frac{1}{\alpha^2} + \frac{1}{3}\cdot\frac{1}{\alpha^3} + \&c.\right\}$$

$$+ 2\left\{\frac{1}{\beta} + \frac{1}{2}\cdot\frac{1}{\beta^2} + \frac{1}{3\beta^3} + \&c.\right\}$$

$$+ h \cdot r^{vi}$$

In the author's plan, α is 10, β either 100 or 1000, &c. and r^{vi}, supposing it to be the last remainder, is to be equal to 1, followed by $\frac{1}{2}$ as many cyphers as the number of decimal places to which it is intended to work. Thus, suppose $r^{vi} = 1.0000\,3141$, then $h.l. = .0000\,3141$ if we work only to 8 figures.

α and β being taken powers of 10, it is plain that $h.l.\frac{\alpha}{\alpha-1}$ $h.l\frac{\beta}{\beta-1}$ &c. are readily calculated; and the operations, such as $x - \frac{x}{\alpha}$, or $x - \frac{x}{10}$, are performed by the aid of the decimal notation with the greatest ease.

In our instance, we have only employed α, β, and made six subtractions with α and two with β: but it is obvious that we might employ α, β, γ, &c. and make, generally, m subtractions with α, n with β, s with γ, &c.

If the quantities be greater than two, they must be reduced by division; thus, if the $h.l.$ 17 were required, $17 = 2^4 \frac{17}{6}$ $= 2^4\,(1.0625.)$ $\therefore h.l.\,17 = 4\,h.l.\,2 + h.l.\,(1.0625)$ and any number between 1 and 2 is easily found by the method above described.

The principle of this method of computing logarithms is very simple, and the practice is both safe and easy. If the construction of new logarithmic tables were required, it would be valuable; and to us it is estimable for the skill and ingenuity with which it has been invented and constructed.

Observations on the Permanency of the Variation of the Compass at Jamaica. By Mr. James Robertson.— In Halley's time, the variation of the compass at Jamaica was $6\frac{1}{4}$ degrees East: it is such at the present moment, and has remained the same ever since the grants of land in 1660. This circumstance is clearly and satisfactorily established by the following simple and brief account:

'I resided (says Mr. R.) at Jamaica, as a King's Surveyor of Land, upwards of 20 years. Disputes at law about boundaries of lands are there decided by ejectments, in the Supreme Court of Judicature, by the evidence and diagrams of King's surveyors of land. This is different from the practice in England, because the manner in which grants of land from the Crown are made, in the two countries, is different. In Jamaica, to every grant of land a diagram thereof is annexed to the patent. This diagram is delineated from an actual survey of the land to be granted, having a meridional line, according to the magnetical needle, by which the survey was made, laid down in it. No notice is taken of the true meridian. The boundary lines of the land granted are marked on earth, (as it is denominated,) by cutting notches on the trees between which the line is run through the woods. These trees being mostly of hard timber, the notches will be discernible for 30 years, or more. By repeated re-surveys these lines are kept up: and, when the cultivation, on both sides, renders it necessary to fell the marked trees, (which can only be done by mutual consent, it being otherwise death by the law,) logwood fences are planted in the lines dividing the properties thus cultivated: and many of these fences have been regularly repaired, and kept up, to the present time. Lands were granted from the Crown soon after the Restoration, in 1660; and every succeeding year, the number of patents increased. The old estates have been often re-surveyed, and plans of them made, and usually annexed to deeds of conveyance, or mortgage, which must be enrolled, within a limited time, in the office of the Secretary of the Island; where, also, all the patents, and diagrams annexed to them, are recorded. In all disputes at law about boundary lines, where the keeping up of the old marked lines on earth has been neglected, surveyors are appointed to make actual re-surveys of all the old marked lines on earth, (preserved in the manner before mentioned,) and to extract from the Secretary of the Island's office, correct copies of all such diagrams annexed to patents, and to deeds of conveyance, or mortgage, of lands in the neighbourhood where the disputed boundary is, as they may think necessary for the investigation thereof. They then compare the lines, and meridians, of these original diagrams with those in their diagrams delineated from their own re-surveys recently made; when it is always expected that the lines, and meridians, of the former will coincide with those of the latter. It is evident that this coincidence could not happen if any variation of the magnetical needle had taken place in the intermediate time elapsed between the making of the first, and of the last, survey. My business being very extensive, I was frequently applied to in disputes at law about boundary lines, and I had, besides, abundance of opportunities, on other surveys, to ascertain this fact satisfactorily. From all which I have discovered that the courses of the lines, and meridians, delineated on the original diagrams annexed to patents, from 1660, downwards to the present time, and of the re-survey diagrams thereof, annexed to deeds, coincide with, and are parallel to, the lines and meridians delineated on the new diagrams from recent surveys made by the magnetical needle, of the same original marked lines on earth, preserved as be-

fore

fore described; so that whatever course is laid down for the line on the diagram annexed to the patent, (and let it be supposed, for example, to be north and south, or east and west,) upon setting the compass in the old marked line on earth, and directing the sights north and south, or east and west, according to the magnetical needle, the said marked line on earth, originally run by the magnetical needle 130 or 140 years ago, has been found by me to be exactly in the line, or direction with that of the compass; consequently no alteration of the variation could have taken place during the whole, or any part, of that period of time in Jamaica.'

Observations on the Variation and on the Dip of the Magnetic Needle, made at the Apartments of the Royal Society between the Years 1786 *and* 1805 *inclusive. By Mr.* George Gilpin.—This memoir contains, perhaps, the most exact table of the variation of the compass that has been yet submitted to the public. During sixteen months, every day successively, and at several periods of time in each day, Mr. G. observed the compass. The hours were 7 A.M., 8 A.M., 10 A.M., 12 A.M., 1 P.M., 2 P.M., 4 P.M., 6 P.M., 8 P.M., 10 P.M., and 11 P.M.—At 7 A.M. and 8 A.M., the daily variation was at its minimum: at 1 P.M. and 2 P.M. at its maximum; and at 8 P.M. at its maximum again. The daily observations are comprized in tables occupying sixteen pages.

A table is also given for the mean monthly variation:

'Table IV. (says Mr. Gilpin) contains the differences for 12 years, *viz.* from 1793 to 1805, between the observations of the variation made in the months of March, June, September, and December, or at the times of the vernal and autumnal equinoxes, and summer and winter solstices; by a mean of these 12 years, the variation appears to increase or go westward, from the winter solstice to the vernal equinox 0′.80; diminishes or goes eastward from the vernal equinox, to the summer solstice 1′.43; increases again from the summer solstice to the autumnal equinox 2′.43; and continues nearly the same, only decreasing 0′.14, from the said equinox to the winter solstice.

'These differences at the times of the equinoxes and solstices have been noticed by M Cassini, in his observations made at the Royal Observatory at Paris, between the years 1783 and 1788, but the effect was considerably greater in his observations, than in those mentioned above; his results however were, in my opinion, drawn from too few observations, being from only 8 days observations about the times of the equinoxes and solstices, which differ considerably among themselves; and experience teaches us, that magnetical observations made for a period so limited are not sufficient for minute purposes: I have therefore, in the results here given, taken the mean of the observations made during the whole month in which the equinoxes and solstices fall, which appear to me likely to furnish results more satisfactory; and all the foregoing observations are to be considered

as

as the results or mean of a great many, by way of arriving at greater accuracy than could be obtained without; this, however, was found to be more necessary at some times than at others; sometimes, the needle would be extremely consistent with itself, so as to return exactly to the same point, however often it might have been drawn aside; at other times it varied 2 or 3′, sometimes 8, 10′, or even more; this uncertainty in the needle arises principally, I believe, from changes in the atmosphere, for a change of wind, from any quarter to another, almost always produced a change in the needle from steady to unsteady, and *vice versâ*, but it was generally more unsteady with an easterly wind, than when it blew from any other quarter, and most steady when the wind was south or south-westerly. An Aurora Borealis always produced considerable agitation of the needle.'

The variation of the compass at present, according to Mr. Gilpin, is 24° 8′ West, and its annual increase is exceedingly small; so that we may conjecture the needle to have reached its greatest westerly declination.

Mr. Gilpin is eminently intitled to the gratitude of the philosophic world, for the care and assiduity bestowed on this subject, and (as it should seem) for the great nicety with which his observations were made.

On the Declinations of some of the principal fixed Stars; with a Description of an Astronomical Circle, and some Remarks on the Construction of circular Instruments. *By* John Pond, *Esq.*—With a circle constructed by Mr. Troughton, Mr. Pond made observations on the declinations of those stars, the right ascensions of which are observed at Greenwich; and his labours on this subject may be useful to Astronomers.—He suggests an ingenious and a very simple mode of examining the latitudes of places. If the declinations of the same Stars examined at different places do not agree, then the latitudes of the places of observations must have been inaccurately determined; and a correction therefore will be requisite. After having stated his method, and the corrections proposed to be made to the co-latitudes of Greenwich, Armagh, Palermo, and Westbury, he makes the following observation, which well merits attention:

'I consider this comparison as interesting likewise on another account; it is an object deserving of curiosity to examine the present state of our best astronomical instruments, and to ascertain what may reasonably be expected from them. The superiority of circular instruments is, I believe, too universally admitted, to render it probable that quadrants will ever again be substituted in their place. But the Greenwich quadrant is so intimately connected with the history of astronomy, the observations that have been made with it, and the deductions from those observations, are of such infinite importance to the science, that every circumstance relating to it cannot fail of being

interesting.

interesting. Now when it is considered that this instrument has been in constant use for upwards of half a century, and that the center error, from constant friction, would during this time have a regular tendency to increase, it will not appear at all surprising, if the former accuracy of this instrument should be somewhat impaired. With a view, therefore, of ascertaining more correctly the present state of an instrument on which so much depends, I have exhibited in one view the polar distances as determined by circular instruments alone; the respective co-latitudes being previously corrected by the method above mentioned; and I have compared the mean result with the Greenwich Catalogue, that the nature and amount of the deviations may be seen, and if it be judged necessary, corrected. I should add, that by some observations of the sun at the winter solstice in 1800, the difference between the Greenwich quadrant and the circle was 10 or 12″, the quadrant still giving the zenith distance too little.'

Observations and Remarks on the Figure, the Climate, and the Atmosphere of Saturn and its Ring. By William Herschel, *LL.D. F.R.S.*—We have already noticed, in a preceding Number, the observations made by Dr. H. on the figure of Saturn *. It was the Doctor's opinion, last year, that this planet was flattened both at its poles and at the equator; and the present memoir confirms that idea.

The form of Saturn flattened at the poles, if it be the *real* form, is not that which, from reasons that obviously suggest themselves, results from the planet's rotation, and from the attraction of the Ring. The figure of Saturn was once differently represented by Dr. H.; and this discrepancy of representation having been urged as an objection against the new figure, he thus replies to that remark:

'In the year 1789 I ascertained the proportion of the equatorial to the polar diameter of Saturn to be 22.81 to 20.61, and in this measure was undoubtedly included the effect of the ring on the figure of the planet, though its influence had not been investigated by direct observation. The rotation of the planet was determined afterwards by changes observed in the configuration of the belts, and proper figures to represent the different situation of the spots in these belts were delineated. In drawing them it was understood that the shape of the planet was not the subject of my consideration, and that consequently a circular disk, which may be described without trouble, would be sufficient to show the configurations of the changeable belts.

'Those who compare these figures, and others I have occasionally given, in which the particular shape of the body of the planet was not intended to be represented, with the figure which is contained in my last paper, of which the sole purpose was to express that figure,

* See M. Rev. N. S. Vol. xlix. p. 382.

and

and wonder at the great difference, have probably not read the measures I have given of the equatorial and polar diameters of this planet; and as it may be some satisfaction to compare the appearance of Saturn in 1789 with the critical examination of it in 1805, I have now drawn them from the two papers which treat of the subject; Fig. 1, Plate XXI. represents the spheroidical form of the planet as observed in 1789, at which time the singularity of the shape since discovered was unknown; and Fig. 2, represents the same as it appeared the 5th of May, 1805. The equatorial and polar diameters that were established in 1789 are strictly preserved in both figures, and the last differs from the first only in having the flattening at the poles a little more extended on both sides towards the equatorial parts. It is in consequence of the increase of the length of this flattening, or from some other cause, that a somewhat greater curvature in the latitudes of 40 or 45 degrees north and south has taken place; and as these differences are very minute, it will not appear extraordinary that they should have been overlooked in 1789, when my attention was intirely taken up with an examination of the two principal diameters of the planet.'

We quote also the subsequent passage, as containing a fact which is rather remarkable, and for which we see no good reason. If it be exact, it ought to satisfy those who have used magnifying powers only moderately high, and have not been able to discern the pro-oblateness of Saturn:

'The use of various magnifying powers in observing minute objects is not generally understood. A low power, such as 200 or 160, with which I have seen the figure of Saturn, is not sufficient to show it to one who has not already seen it perfectly well with an adequate high power; an observer, therefore, who has not an instrument that will bear a very distinct magnifying power of 500, ought not to expect to see the outlines of Saturn, so sharp and well defined as to have a right conception of its figure. The quintuple belt is generally a very good criterion; for if that cannot be seen, the telescope is not sufficient for the purpose; but when we have intirely convinced ourselves of the reality of the phenomena I have pointed out, we may then gradually lower the power, in order to be assured that the great curvature of the eye glasses giving these high powers, has not occasioned any deceptions in the figure to be investigated, and this was the only reason why I mentioned that I had also seen the remarkable figure of Saturn with low powers.'

A List of Presents received by the Society, and an Index, according to *antient and laudable custom*, terminate this volume.

from p. 162. R.W.

ART. IX. *Recollections of Paris*, in the Years 1802-3-4-5. By J. Pinkerton. 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. about 500 in each. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman and Co.

IF Fashion presided only over articles of personal decoration, Mr. Pinkerton's idea of representing her as 'the deified little milliner' would be admissible: but the province of this divinity is of much wider range, extending even to the region of intellect, and influencing men of letters as well as fancy dress-makers. Our thoughts take their hue from those which have been prevalent in the society with which, by choice, we have been most conversant; and in preparing them for the public, we generally fall into the adopted mode of exhibition. Hence arises a fashion in book-making; and authors, even while they seem to study variety, preserve in certain traits a kind of family likeness.

Mr. Pinkerton, in his *Recollections of Paris*, may urge that he has given accounts of the French capital, of its environs, and its inhabitants, which, from his long residence, may be supposed to possess superior accuracy, and some of which are not to be found in any of the several publications with which we have been lately presented; he may plead, moreover, in excuse for his title, that 'he took no notes;' and that the greater part of these volumes is the result of a happy memory, combined with such observations as were excited by the state of the country and of the society which he explored. So far we have no objection to his proceedings: but we see no necessity for interweaving Essays with his *recollected* facts; we find too much of modern authorship in the manufacture and complexion of his work; and his considerations on the writings of Rousseau tend to interrupt the narrative, and needlessly to swell the volume. Some individuals, it is probable, will accuse him of being too *frenchified*; of discovering too great a partiality for the country and usages of our enemies; of being too forward in their vindication; and of arguing with too much energy on the policy of cultivating their friendship, even in the closest bonds, at the very moment when war is raging with all the malignity of the most inflamed passion. We are not, however, of the number of those who upbraid Mr. P. with being a cosmopolitical traveller; and so far are we from being displeased with his endeavours to impress a conviction on the two countries of the superior advantages which would accrue to each from the strenuous cultivation of the arts of peace, in preference to the favourite though unchristian system of war, that we should derive the most heart-felt pleasure from the practical adoption of this principle: but, unfortunately for

both parties, mutual resentment and animosity are carried to such a height, that the patriotism of the sagacious and prudent counsellor is suspected; and the *still small voice* of reason is drowned amid the clangor of arms. Nations, like individuals, are continually blind to their own interests, and are better pleased with those who foster their pride and their passions, than with those who exhort them to be wise. Should Mr. P. fail, from the prejudices of the moment, of subserving the interests of beneficence and humanity to the extent which he desires, it must be allowed that he has added to the mass of our information respecting Paris; and that, by long residence and intimate intercourse with the native inhabitants, he is enabled to exhibit views of manners which occur not to the fugitive rambler.

Many of the objects here noticed are such as have been mentioned in recent accounts of the French capital. We have descriptions of the Boulevards, National Library, Louvre, Garden of Plants, Palace of the Luxembourg, Garden of the Tuileries, Museum of National Monuments, Bridges, Baths, Streets, Taverns, Churches, &c. To these common topics, however, are added several that are new, and which merit particular notice. Mr. Pinkerton presents to us the state of Literature, Medicine, and Education, gives us a view of the Revenue, Taxes, new civil code, of the Police, &c. with distinct chapters intitled Moral Considerations and General Reflections.

Having so repeatedly accompanied the visitors of the Modern French capital to palaces, gardens, statues, pictures, &c. we shall not, on the present occasion, quote the author's remarks on these matters of general observation, though in these he has not always followed the opinions of others *: confining our extracts to matters which are less trivial.

In the chapter on Learning and Literary Societies, Mr. P. adverts to the different treatment of the members of the latter on the different sides of the channel:

'While in England the members of learned societies pay annual sums towards their expence; in France, on the contrary, these members were, and are, paid by the government. The consultation of geographers, chemists, and other scientific characters, on the arrangement of public measures, was also often productive of great and lasting effects; while in some other countries Generals are sent out without maps or plans; and operations depending on chemistry or other sciences, are all projected and arranged by an omniscient minister.

* For instance, he does not greatly admire the Venus de Medici; he thinks that it was classed by the antients among the third or fourth-rate productions of the art.

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The astonishing successes that have recently followed the French arms may in a great degree be ascribed to this cause; not to mention that the leaders themselves are often not only deeply versed in their own profession, but considerably tinctured with other sciences.'

To this statement, we subjoin his account of the Institute:

'The chief literary society in France is the Institute, which has been recently modelled in imitation of the former academies, one class representing the academy of sciences, another that of inscriptions, a third that of the French language, while a fourth replaces the academy of painting and sculpture. In all these classes, as happens in such institutions, men of superior talents are mingled with one half or one third part mere quacks, who have usurped a ridiculous reputation by low intrigues, and by taking advantage of particular times and circumstances. Still the mass of science and the freedom of inquiry are so preponderant, that the Institute may be regarded as a grand focus of illumination, particularly in natural philosophy and chemistry. The members wear a particular dress, black, embroidered with green silk. I know not how it has happened that these distinctive dresses have become in vogue since the revolution, for they are certainly very remote from republican forms or equality, rarely appearing, on the contrary, except in despotic governments. But this conspires with many other circumstances to evince that the French character can never become truly republican, as these petty distinctions, arising from vanity, form the antipodes of republican modesty. That magistrates, while exercising their functions, should wear a solemn dress, is natural and rational; but that counsellors of state, senators, members of the legislative body, of the tribunate, of the Institute, &c., should be distinguished by their costume, seems a novelty in European history, certainly not indicative of the progress of rational liberty or solid knowledge.

'The secretaries of the Institute are now nominated during their lives, but the presidents during a short period. In this plan there is the advantage that the president cannot influence the society in favour of any particular branch of science to which he may chance to give the preference; far less can he arrange it like a machine to serve particular objects of his own ambition. But, on the other hand, he is not so deeply interested in the welfare of the society, nor can he form such durable plans for its progressive advantage.

'The secretaries have been nominated during their lives, apparently because the situation demands practical skill. But in general it is a subject of astonishment and regret that many literary situations in France are only held during the good health of the possessor. Thus if any of the masters of the lycées or public schools, should be afflicted with a lasting infirmity, he totally loses his appointments, and is reduced to a state of beggary. A bare recital of such cruelty is sufficient to excite indignation in every beneficent bosom; to superadd poverty to disease being a truly tyrannic refinement.'

Among the exhibitions of the works of living artists in the year 1802, we are informed of a large picture by Gros, (a

disciple of David,) representing 'Bonaparte, commander in chief of the army of the East, at the moment that he touches a pestilential tumour, on his visit to the hospital at Jaffa.' This singular piece introduces the notice of the heinous charge produced against Bonaparte, of having ordered his own sick soldiers to be poisoned. Instead of fulminating anathemas against the French Chief, as having unquestionably perpetrated this atrocious deed, the present writer is inclined to question the fact.

'It was said (he observes) that Desgenettes, a physician who appears in this picture with Bonaparte, (and the strict resemblance was acknowledged by all Paris), was the very person who had reported that the general of the East had been guilty of this cruelty. It seems, however, little probable that in such a case the subject should have been permitted to be thus exposed to public observation and inquiry: and this respectable physician has certainly not been rewarded for his silence, having no office nor emolument that can bespeak the consciousness of such an action. I have also conversed with many literary men who went with the army of the East, and who spoke with great freedom and dislike of the Syrian campaign, as an enterprise equally rash and useless, but never heard any charge upon this account. It may be said that the honour of the French name induced them to this silence; but no Frenchman forgets that Bonaparte is an Italian and a Corsican. The reader will, however, judge for himself; but those who have the best hearts will be the last to be persuaded of the truth of the accusation.'

Those who are inclined to believe any thing against Bonaparte will not thank Mr. P. for this side-wind in his favour.

Though the view of the state of medicine be short, it is not unworthy of notice; and the same may be observed of the account of the French method of bathing. The hints relative to the improvement of the streets of Paris more concern the inhabitants of that city than those of London.

From the chapter on the modern Education of the French, the interesting nature of its contents induces us to make a long extract:

'It was under the administration of François de Neufchâteau, that the new name of Prytaneum was adopted; and when Chaptal became minister of the interior, one hundred and eighty scholarships were granted at the public expence, and soon after one hundred others, all to be named by the first consul. It was at the same time permitted that other children might share the advantage of the careful education proposed, on paying a moderate salary. This institution is immediately under the care of the minister of the interior, who names the directors and professors. Mass is celebrated every morning, but no blame is attached to those who do not attend: gymnastic exercises are also mingled with instructions in the moral duties towards their

their parents, their country, and the Supreme Being; but each scholar is at perfect liberty to follow his own mode of worship.

'Instead of the old pedantic routine, simple and practical methods have been adopted. Instead of a general tinge of superficial knowledge, the talents and inclination of the scholars are carefully observed, and directed to such studies as they may pursue with most advantage.

'The course of study is divided into three distinct parts. Children are first taught the French language and grammar, a first and indispensable branch, which is never neglected during the whole period of instruction. The Latin tongue is carefully taught by the methods of Condillac and Dumarsais, which spare the time, and sometimes prevent the disgust of the scholars. In this first course, all are taught the elements of arithmetic.

'To this course, merely elemental and grammatical, succeeds another, in which the scholars are taught composition; and instituted in the elements of literature, French, Latin, and Greek.

'In the third course, the education is completed by that kind of instruction which is adapted to their talents and inclinations: rhetoric, philosophy, and the mathematics, with mechanics, surveying, and the first principles of astronomy and chemistry, are laid before the students. Geography is not only studied, but accompanied with the practical art of drawing maps and plans. In history, the scholars write down the lessons, so as to form a little collection of their own composition. In the second and third course, all are taught the German and English languages; and the study of drawing is alike universal. A fencing master and a dancing master are each charged with a class of twenty five scholars, chosen for their good behaviour; but any may be taught these arts, and music, at the expence of their parents. Gymnastic and military exercises and swimming are practised by all, on the days of vacation. The instruction is not uniform, a plan rather calculated to enchain than to develope the faculties, but is varied according to the talents, dispositions, and future views. A select and ample library is open to the scholars.

'They are divided, according to their age and studies, into classes of twenty-five; each forming a separate habitation, with a school and sleeping rooms, under the care of an experienced teacher, who watches over their manners and conduct, assists their inexperience in literary toil, forms their character by remonstrating on their faults and teaching them their duties, sees that they read no improper books, and that they write regularly to their friends. He presides over their repasts, attends when they rise and go to bed, in short, never quits them except when he brings them to the professors, adopting every care of a good master and father of a family. A careful servant, confined to each class or division, is charged with the physical care of the children, their dress and personal cleanliness. It may not be improper to add, that they sleep alone, and are carefully watched by the teacher, who is placed in the centre of the division; and that the domestic and a night-watcher walk through the sleeping rooms, to guard against the smallest accident or impropriety.

'The games and recreations of the children are always superintended by the masters, and their walks, in particular, are well watched. A regulation, approved by the government, forbids them to leave the house upon any pretence, except during the vacations, when they may visit their families. They are, however, indemnified by the extent of their own domains, even those at Paris passing the summer days of vacation at the large house and park of Vanvres, in gymnastic exercises, swimming, and such little exercises in gardening and agriculture, as they may choose.

'Although sickness be rare, a physician and surgeon constantly reside in the house; and there is an infirmary where the sick children are attended with the same care as if they were in their own families. At the same time, every attention is paid to the general health. The halls and rooms are well aired, a regular warmth distributed in winter, the food of a salutary nature, and the beginning of any disease carefully marked and opposed.

'Such is the general plan of this institution, in which there is doubtless much to be praised; but in the division of the courses, it may be doubted whether the Latin should enter into the first course, where writing might supply its place; and, in fact, this first course ought wholly to belong to the primary schools. Yet, upon the whole, the education is excellent, and the distribution of the prizes, which takes place before the summer vacation, forms a very interesting and crowded spectacle. After discourses by the director, and by the minister of the interior, or any other member of the administration named to dignify the ceremony by his presence, the names of the boys who have distinguished themselves in each branch are solemnly proclaimed, with flourishes of music, and the plaudits of the audience. The boy advances, is embraced by the minister, who places on his head a wreath of laurel, and gives him some valuable book. The catalogue of the victors and prizes is afterwards published, to the great satisfaction of parents and friends.

'Let me not be accused of being tedious on a subject of such infinite importance as practical education, the subject of innumerable books, but of difficult execution, as what seems true and salutary in theory, often, in practice, proves false and detrimental. Nor shall an apology be offered for some further illustrations of this interesting topic, and which, though sometimes minute, may be of lasting consequence to the community.

'The board at the Prytanée, now the Lyceum of Paris, is nine hundred francs a year, (not thirty-eight pounds sterling), but each boarder must pay quarterly, and by advance. Each boarder must bring a trunk, containing the following articles:

'A great coat of broad cloth, colour, iron grey—the uniform of the school. An uniform coat of iron grey, with blue collar and sleeves. Two waistcoats, &c., of the same. Two white waistcoats, one of cloth, the other of dimity. Two pair of sheets, of ten ells. One dozen napkins. One dozen of shirts. Two bedgowns. Twelve handkerchiefs. Six cravats of double muslin, and two of black silk. Six pair of cotton stockings, of mixed blues, and

and two white. Six cotton night caps. Two hats, one three cornered. Two pair of shoes. Two combs, and a comb brush. A clothes brush. A plate and goblet of silver, or other metal, at the choice of the parents, and marked with the number of the scholar, which is also put on his other effects, that no other may use them.

'After this first equipment, no further expence is incurred for the children, whether sick or in health. The dress and all the other articles are renewed at the expence of the institution, during the whole course of the studies, except losses positively ascertained to have been made by the scholars themselves. For books, maps, and paper, used in the third course, there is an additional charge of twenty five franks, or a guinea a year. The trunk, except the sheets and napkins, is returned when the scholar leaves the Lyceum; and as only French manufactures are permitted, the articles, in case of difficulty, may be easily procured at the house.

'The boys educated at this seminary are very numerous, generally appear stout and healthy, and possessed with an interesting emulation. The military part of their education is rather to be regretted; but it is to be feared that the ambition of France will render it necessary in other countries.'

As "Education forms the common mind," and as the character of a people must be in a great measure impressed by their systems of instruction, it is impossible for the sensible part of our readers not to reflect with seriousness on the account presented in the foregoing quotation. France may be considered as a military academy; and if, under this impression, we calculate her population, what may we not apprehend from the fostering care of this martial spirit? We ought maturely to weigh the tendency of this mode of education, as being more a cause of alarm than all the present conquests and acquisitions of our enemies.—The speech of Fourcroy, director-general of public instruction, delivered in August 1805, receives some comments from Mr. P. which ought not to be overlooked:

'When the orator proceeds to shew the advantages of a mixture of military education, his judgment seems to be warped by the necessity of pleasing a military monarch. He observes that all the French are, by the law, called at a fixed age to the defence of the state; and that this law cannot be considered as unjust, as by some years' fatigue and danger, the repose and security of life are procured, as by the payment of a part of property the remainder is preserved. He praises the conscription as the guarantee of the extent of the French empire, and preserving equality by equality of service. "In the feudal times," says he, "we were divided as it were into two nations, the people and its masters, and the former could not pretend to military dignities. But at present officers are appointed only by merit; the career of honour is open to every man of courage; titles are only to be acquired by service, and service alone gives a

right to distinction. Hence, he adds, the inequality of ranks is totally destroyed, and even the last vestiges of feudality have disappeared; the heirs of ancient families not being respected for their birth, though many of them continue to be honoured for their services to the empire. Nor does the new order of things permit the transmission of hereditary dignities, but the heir must distinguish himself before he can aspire to the glory of his father; whence France is certain of seeing brave leaders at the head of brave armies.'

Notwithstanding the general decline of commerce, and the complaint in the cities of the weight of taxes, it is asserted that the grand staple of France, *agriculture*, has certainly been benefited by the revolution. More land, we are told, is actually cultivated than before, the farms are more divided, greater skill and industry are exerted, the stock of cattle is increased, and greater comfort prevails among the peasantry. The revenue of France is computed to be thirty-two millions of pounds sterling.

Among the topics *not necessarily* connected with *Recollections of Paris*, are 'Considerations on a commercial treaty with France;' but, though this chapter might have been spared, we do not object to the nature of its contents. If the two nations were in a temper adapted to the fair discussion of its merits, both would feel themselves obliged to Mr. Pinkerton for his hints: but, as things are, he will be thanked by neither, and his remonstrances will be poured *surdis auribus*. As, however, it may not be altogether useless to record good advice, though for the present the parties concerned are not disposed to follow it, we shall copy a small part of these considerations:

'Anger and enmity are indeed the blindest of all the passions, and will sometimes incur even great personal injury, in order to hurt an adversary. But wicked and designing men, who wish to rob during the conflagration, can alone desire to encourage or prolong such diabolical passions, attended with consequences abhorrent to humanity, not to speak of christianity, between the two most powerful nations of the globe, and formed by nature for mutual assistance, intercourse, friendship, and esteem. It is time that an end be put to the collision of the mean and ridiculous intrigues of concubines, priests, and pretended statesmen; and that the voice of nature and nations be heard. Above all, if we wish for durable prosperity, we must, instead of combating against the decrees of providence, learn to avail ourselves of repeated lessons, and of the existing circumstances. Where the events can no longer be controlled by counsels, wisdom will seek to accommodate the counsels to the events. An oriental proverb declares, that *a wise man may change his opinion, but a fool never*: and it is indeed in the very nature of ignorance, not to know the real nature and influence of the events, and of obstinacy, its most usual concomitant, to endeavour a vain struggle against them.

Supposing

Supposing that no relations of friendship or enmity had ever existed between this island and France, supposing that it had moved from one part of the world to another, and had unexpectedly been placed in the immediate neighbourhood of a great and powerful empire, ever celebrated for the military ardour of its people, and with three times our population, would it not have been accounted imprudent to seek occasions of war against this mighty neighbour? But when it came to be discovered that this large adjacent territory produced articles of which we stood much in need, while it wanted many of our manufactures and commerce; would it not be accounted still more imprudent to exchange the advantages of commerce and mutual intercourse, for the privations of war, and the incalculable detriment of mutual enmity? If we were placed in the situation of Japan, we should, by parity of reasoning, enter into constant warfare, patriotic rancour, and most honourable jealousy against the potent empire of China.'

The author represents the geographical situation of Great Britain and France as exactly similar to that of the kingdoms of Japan and China.—We shall not attend to his new plan of restoring the balance of power in Europe under the form of five great empires: since the sword of the conqueror, and not the discussions of philosophers, will mark the boundaries of nations.

The letters to Mr. P. from his Polish friend Mr. Orchowski, on Polish literature, and on the present state of Poland, are of some interest: but they do not belong to his professed subject.

Mixing intimately with the respectable society of the French capital, the author was qualified for discussing the forms of etiquette, and for stating the order of the dishes at a fashionable French dinner. The superiority of the luxury of Paris compared with that of London is asserted, however reluctant Englishmen may be to credit it.—A distinct chapter is assigned to 'the geography of French wines,' from which it might be inferred that the Parisians are addicted to the pleasures of the bottle: but the contrary, however, is the fact. Their potations are moderate, in spite of the temptation of an abundant variety; 'the *abominable* practice of toasts,' as Mr. P. terms it, is not in use among them; drunkenness is a phænomenon in the superior classes of the community; and it is added that the head of the empire is 'a model of the severest temperance.'

In giving these views of the Parisian character, and even in the accounts which are presented of the mineralogy of the environs of the French metropolis, Mr. Pinkerton may have drawn on the bank of his Recollection:—but certain make-weight articles appear, which are evidently derived from another quarter. The chapters intitled '*Small Talk*,' and '*Fragments*,' are mostly extracted from journals, and books of bon mots; and

many of them no otherwise pay for their transcription than by occupying space. This species of patch-work is very easy. *Unus et alter assuitur pannus;* and thus handsome looking volumes are produced.

The route of the author's return to his own country being through Flanders and Holland, sketches of the characters of those people, as well as of their chief towns, are subjoined. It is said that the devotion of the Flemings, 'which formerly depended on the wealth and influence of the clergy, has disappeared, and has given place to a taste for the theatre and other social amusements;' and of the Dutch it is observed that 'money and Calvinism form the sole objects of their meditations.' On his taking leave of the continent, he cautions us against French Emigrants, as the betrayers of their unsuspecting benefactors, and urges the policy of sending them all, with grants of land, to Canada; and though a strong predilection for French manners seems to betray itself in his delineation of Parisian enjoyments, 'a flush of satisfaction which doubled the sensation of existence' was felt by Mr. P., as he informs us, at the moment of alighting on English ground, on being 'delivered from the police of Paris, from passports, garrisons, commissaries, and consuls.'

Some pompous words occur, as well as a few errors; and some things are recollected twice, as the derivation of the word *calembourg* in vol. i. p. 462. and vol. ii. p. 370.

ART. X. *An Inquiry into the Requisite Cultivation and Present State of the Arts of Design in England.* By Prince Hoare. 12mo. 7s. Boards. R. Phillips.

INQUIRY is a term of high import, and a duty of sacred obligation. If ably and rigorously executed, it may materially promote the rights of truth and the interests of knowlege: but if superficially or partially pursued, it may either seriously injure or finally retard them.—When our scientific luminary, the illustrious Bacon, had dispersed the mists of vulgar and interested prejudice, which had been thickened into overshadowing obscurities by the intrigue and selfishness of the cloistered ages, nothing was taken for granted, but was submitted to the ordeal of investigation. Yet so tenacious of their dogmas had been the cowl'd impostors, that it was heresy to doubt their promulgated tenets, however repugnant to common sense, to truth, and to the advantages that might be derived from the knowlege and practice of true religion: while with superstition the genius of the Arts lay buried in legendary

dary tales—The good Erasmus also exposed to the world the venality, pride, and intolerance which had coalesced to stifle reason, and the noblest function of man,—the use of his senses; and he manifested how much the Cloisters were aware that ignorance and credulity have ever been inseparable companions.

Since that period, many writers have assumed the specious name of *Inquirers;* perhaps to answer very little other purpose than to make a plausible attempt at establishing some party hypothesis favourable to a Sect, Society, or Institution: to all which cases, we may apply the emphatic expression of the great promoter of science already mentioned, "*such are liable to suspect.*"—Where flattery has much concern, it may be feared that truth is little consulted; and how often are realities found totally different from their superficial appearances:

> "So may the outward shows be least themselves;
> The world is still deceived with ornament.
> In law, what plea so tainted and corrupt,
> But, being season'd with a gracious voice
> Obscures the show of evil?" SHAKSPEARE.

Philosophy, stedfast to the investigation of truth, is of no party; neither have been the liberal Arts, in those countries in which they most have flourished: but the very term, of *liberal* Arts, should tell us that to thrive they must be free.

False critics have produced as much mischief perhaps as false prophets; since, instead of aiding the progress of true Art, they have contributed to weaken it by the incongruities of flippant observations and erroneous conclusions. Whether this evil proceeded from vanity, from interest, or from any other cause, is immaterial; the effect produced on the public mind is the same. We regret to say that, in several instances, blame of this nature attaches to the late ingenious Horace Walpole; who has given a certain degree of currency to assumed corollaries and trifling remarks. If "a little learning is a dangerous thing," so is a little knowlege of the vast field of Art.

Experience amply shews that the state of public manners and morals has ever influenced and regulated that of the liberal Arts.—In every age and country, in which the generality of pursuits are at best trifling, the study of the Arts will be proportionably insignificant. It was more the labours of the mind than of the hand, that gave to the culture and execution of them in Greece the high pre-eminence to which they had attained. The minds of Pericles and of Phidias were equally illumined; and their abilities differed only in relation to the mechanism of workmanship, by drawing the "existing figure from its

concealment, in the unsculptured block of Pentelic or of Parian marble." Modern institutions, however necessary to the splendour of variety, are too much connected with parade; and they have often proved not only insufficient, but inimical to the true culture of the Arts, in their progress to the higher excellencies. Their state in the Grecian Republics of Antiquity depended on the dispositions of the citizens, and the manners of the several commonwealths. As these were virtuous in promoting the enthusiastic love of country, or as the pure flame of liberty abated in their bosoms, so arose or fell the thermometer of excellence in the Sister Arts of Design.

Wherever the arts are considered merely as matters of capricious ostentation, where patronage is made a stalking horse, and little or nothing is done essentially to cultivate that which alone is truly valuable, what rational benefit can be expected by multiplying institutions? To give birth to works that constitute sound Art, the generality of artists, and the public at large, should be supplied with the means of obtaining better information than they possess, by the exhibition of the first examples of human skill. This object might be obtained by forming a public gallery on a magnificent scale of collection, and by adopting a liberal system of general admission. We would hope, though we fear that the hope is vain, that the rare example of the Marquis of Stafford will be followed by the majority of the numerous other possessors of private collections, though some objections to the mode of admission at Cleveland Row may be fairly made; for the churlish manner, in which the public are debarred access to most of these repositories, meets no parallel in the civilized world. To the discredit even of the Legislature, free ingress and egress have formerly been denied at a National Museum, of which the rarities have been chiefly purchased and are maintained at the National charge: but we learn with sincere satisfaction that here a more liberal regulation will henceforth be adopted.

It may be inferred from these preliminary observations, that we regard the subject of the present work as of considerable interest and importance; and we are disposed to offer our remarks on it at rather unusual length.—Mr. Hoare states in his preface;

'It is not my design, in this short treatise, to present to the reader a complete investigation of the faculties of Painting and Sculpture, but to offer to his perusal such remarks as my particular situation has enabled me to form. The Honorary Office which I hold in the Royal Academy, and the task in which I have there engaged, have led me to many reflections on the various degrees of exertion

made by different States, in proportion to their respective powers, for the advancement of the Plastic Arts; and thence, forsaking the ungrateful office of comparison, I have been induced to examine abstractedly, how far, *in this particular point*, a full and adequate use has been made of the means and talents of my own country, for the discharge of that most important of all trusts, the due cultivation of the strength and faculties of a nation.'

This object is pursued in three Parts, (subdivided into Chapters and Sections) treating, 1st, *Of the Advantages arising from the Cultivation of the Arts, and on the Methods most conducive to their Advancement;* 2dly, *Of the Establishment, Design, and Progress of the Royal Academy of Arts, and of its Annual Exhibitions;* and, 3dly, *Of the Powers of English Genius, conducive to Excellence in the Arts.*

Respecting the importance of the Arts in exalting the National Character, and their influence in the Grecian republics, Mr. H. cites the following remarks from Mr. Harris:

"The Grecian commonwealths," says the elegant author of Hermes, "(while they maintained their liberty), were the most heroic confederacy that ever existed; they were the politest, the bravest, and the wisest of men: in the short space of little more than a century, they became such statesmen, warriors, orators, historians, physicians, poets, critics, painters, sculptors, architects, and philosophers, that one can hardly help considering that golden period as a providential event in honour of human nature, to shew to what perfection the species might ascend."

'Now, (adds Mr. Hoare) if the fame of the Greek states be thus pre-eminent, and if it must necessarily occur to every reader of history, that, of all the various parts of character enumerated in the passage from Hermes above mentioned, the three which regard the plastic arts, are those alone wherein the Greeks have as yet found no equal competitor, it appears just to conclude, either that those arts possess in themselves, exclusively, the privilege of conferring the Laurel of fame, or that their influential effect on the nation that cultivates them is that of rousing it to such superiority of effort, as equally to deserve the palm in all the various points of character. Either of these conclusions must sufficiently demonstrate the *importance of the arts to the fame of a nation*.

The propriety of the preceding quotation, on this occasion, must be admitted; and it is evident that the excellence, thus strongly depicted, is materially to be attributed to a combination of propitious circumstances, at Athens under Pericles, and at Rome under the virtuous Antonines, and under the pontificate of the second Julius.—In France, where a noble foundation was laid by Francis I. great talents have existed; and these were regulated by the times.—It is but justice to say also of our countrymen, that England has felt no want of sufficient talents to cultivate the Arts with the best success, in all their highest departments;

ments; though numberless concurring causes have arisen to the depression and final prevention of considerable attempts. The competency of Britons in these branches has been so often and so ably discussed, that it seems scarcely necessary to descant farther on the fallacious reasonings and vague aspersions of Montesquieu, Dubos, Winckelmann, &c. The labours of Bacon, Locke, and Newton, in science, and those of Milton and Shakspeare in literature, under all the supposed disadvantages of climate and of *the nature of our food*, are evidences which alone suffice to refute such syllogistic reasonings; and the exertions that have been made in the liberal Arts are facts which render incontrovertible our sufficiency to farther attainments. Instead of wondering that more has not been done, it ought to excite the astonishment of the contemplative that so much has been performed; especially in the higher provinces of the Plastic Arts. Barry's Inquiry should be ever attentively read; and be it remembered that Sir James Thornhill's public works were, as Mr. H. observes, referred to mercantile Commissioners, and estimated *by the yard*.—The powers of Giles Hussey, who had education and talents equal to the highest undertakings in the historic line of painting, were lost to the world from his native timidity and unassuming deportment; unable or unwilling to contend against faction and vulgar prejudices, his acquirements fell a prey to the bawling ignorance of self-sufficient cabals. Had he painted live Mackerel, or the ribs of roasted Beef, his works would have been noticed by numerous employers, his reputation have been extolled, and his fortune have been made.—Hogarth's inimitable pictures, tracing the progress of human follies and vices from their source to their despicable or their tragic ends, could meet no adequate sale, until his decease; and it was from the product of inconsiderable prints, that he gained his daily bread.—The noblest effusions of Wilson's classic mind, committed to canvass, in many instances remained on his hands partially noticed; while Dalton's execrable descriptions of antiquities that are miserably represented gained admittance into the library of a Prince.—Mortimer's early talents, if sufficiently cultivated, might have shone conspicuously by the works of Annibal Caracci: but ere they were patronized, he unfortunately fell a prey to dissipation and debauchery.—Revett lived in gloomy yet serene obscurity, amid his studious avocations; and the nature of his retired disposition having led him to but slender employ, he died unrewarded.—On the canvass of Stubbs, we behold the rapid and energetic coursers whirl the Chariot of the Sun through the sublime expanse of Æther; freed from the restraint of the vain and incompetent Phaeton, and setting fire to all

all that comes in contact with the wheels. This incomparable production of native genius was, with several others, so far lost to public notice, as to have remained for a very long succession of years unpurchased on the walls of his show-room; works of which, in more propitious times, for the encouragement and the advancement of the Arts, kings would have contended for the possession.

How illustrative of cultivated genius are the writings of Richardson on the Arts! while the discourses of Reynolds, Thos. Sandby, and Barry, add lustre to their practical eminence.

Barry has left to the present and to the succeeding generations of British Artists, a legacy of memorable examples, and of the wonderful effects of unremitting perseverance;—the only means of attaining the rugged heights of Parnassus, to which so many content themselves with looking up, without displaying the fortitude required by the attempts to climb. His paintings, which were executed with the sole view of proving what opportunities had been lost, and what Englishmen were capable of achieving, display the sublimest effusions of the human mind, directed to the inculcation of sound morals, so essential to the elevation and dignity of man: yet, as in the case of Hogarth, they obtained no purchasers, and like Hogarth he supplied his wants by the sale of his own engravings. Barry had his faults, as no man is without; while he had virtues and talents which few can boast. His principal performances were a series of Epic paintings and of Attic conceptions which depict the origin and progress of human culture, through its varied combinations, to the final retribution of beatitude or misery. Placed on the walls of the Adelphi Society for the Encouragement of Arts, &c. they are in every respect appropriate to their situation; and they form a work which, for its unique combination of mental and of manual powers, would have been recognised with unbounded approbation in the best ages of antiquity.

At his death only did Barry receive the honours due to his talents and his disinterested exertions. When the publication before us made its appearance, he reposed from his labours, like another Hercules; and to the credit of that Society to which he had been an uncommon ornament, his remains had been placed in their apartments in all the state of funereal grandeur, surrounded by his immortal productions. The spectacle was of the most impressive nature: the shade of Barry was the very Victor at Olympia, whose works gave interest to the venerable corpse, and whose memory was adorned by the union of the palm and the laurel.

Such is a brief and imperfect sketch of the merits and the fate of Barry! Yet in Mr. Hoare's book, professing to be an 'Inquiry into the requisite cultivation and the present state of the arts of design in England,' *his* paintings, which form so superior an example in illustration of that Inquiry, find no mention! This, surely, is a fact to be equally reprobated and lamented; however grating a due tribute to him might have been to the advocates of that Institution, with which Mr. H. is connected by the important office of Secretary for Foreign Correspondence!

The influence of the Arts, and their effect in advancing the holy ordinances of Religion, are thus described:

'The pleasure, naturally arising from the contemplation of works of painting and the other imitative arts, a pleasure felt by, and common to, the people in common life, of all nations and characters, will of necessity find its vent in society in some channel or other. How many channels of public depravation are constantly opening, how many artifices of moral pollution are every hour put in practice and every moment kept in play, by profligate dexterity and mercenary cunning, need not be mentioned to any inhabitant of a metropolis. It cannot therefore be considered unworthy of a legislature, seduously watchful of the morals of a great people, to assign a proper province for the gratification of this natural, and naturally innocent, pleasure, by means of such an institution as shall provide a safe and beneficial store of continual public amusement. The activity of desire, if not properly directed, must either idly dissipate itself in trifles and insipid vanity, or suffer perversion and depravation from the allurements of vice. The open avenues to the heart, if virtue and diligence are once suffered to be driven from their guard, will be quickly, although insensibly, filled with the wildest phantasms of indecent and tumultuous riot. Gross, debasing images of sensuality, rude chimeras of *civil disgust*, and deformities of political satire, will usurp the place due to the charms of chastened beauty and historic truth.

'The first effort towards the regular employment of the arts on great moral purposes, was made by the artists of the Royal Academy, and others, in an offer to contribute their gratuitous labours to the farther decoration of St. Paul's Cathedral, by presenting, each, a picture or sculpture of a religious description. The pious prelate, then bishop of the diocese, actuated no doubt by the most consientious motives, esteemed it his duty to discourage such a design, and the proposal was accordingly dismissed.

'It was objected by the bishop, that the charms of painting were of a nature too seductive for his congregation, and that the forms and varied tints of beauty might divert their thoughts from heavenly to earthly objects, and excite emotions inconsistent with religion *.'

Of

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* 'I cannot wholly divest myself of surprise, that in a cultivated mind, whose professional studies had necessarily been so abstracted from all seductive objects of a sensual nature, the idea of *painting* should

Of the powerful effects of Painting on the mind, Horace remarks:

> "*Segnius irritant animos demissa per aurem,*
> *Quam quæ sunt oculis subjecta fidelibus, et quæ*
> *Ipse sibi tradit spectator.*"—

In the decoration of St. Paul's Cathedral with pictured representations of Gospel instruction, and typical calls to morality and to religion, veiled in the emphatic parables delivered by our Saviour, what a field is presented for a fair display of the exertions of the painter! It is said to have been the wish and at one time the *hope* of Sir Christopher Wren, that an appropriate monumental statue of himself, combined with decorative accompaniments, should rise from the centre of the pavement immediately under the Dome.—The four principal pannels of the piers which give it support were, as Mr. H. observes, proposed to have been painted gratuitously: but the metropolitan bishop Terrick, like another Spratt, refused admittance to the arts: and though the polished, the refined, the learned, and the philanthropic Lowth shortly afterward adorned the same ecclesiastical station, farther application ceased from Sir Joshua Reynolds, N. Dance, Mortimer, and others. Barry, when deserted and defeated in his efforts to serve his country, by adorning the church with the display of national talents in art worthy of its other high considerations, formed the resolution of making a similar *gratuitous* application to the members of the laudable institution for the promotion of Arts, &c.; of the result of which we have already spoken.

In the second part of his Inquiry, Mr. H. proceeds to inform us of the benefits which the arts have derived from public exhibitions, and gives his opinion of the invigorating effect of the Royal Academy since its establishment:

'In England, they have greatly contributed to ripen the public judgment on all points of art, and appear to have had one very salutary consequence, that of diffusing a general desire (now first beginning to assume form and substance, and mixing with the wishes of the artists) to see the arts employed in a manner more worthy of their capacity and extensive powers. For it must be observed, that unless the objects exhibited be found adequate to the previous state of mind and consequent expectation of the beholder, little else than discontent can be the result; instead of pleasure smiling in the eye, and pride mantling to the heart, the weapons of critical animadver-

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should have been wholly confined to images of the kind just mentioned, and the art regarded only in the faculty which it possesses in common with all other attainments (whether of art or science), of contributing, *when improperly used*, to the corruption of mind.'

sion

sion will soon sparkle in the hands of many who are bidden to the feast.

'This statement will probably suggest the cause of that fastidious sentiment so frequently displaying itself in the Exhibition-room of Somerset-House Since the commencement of those Exhibitions, an awakened public has formed higher conceptions of art, to which the *class* of works generally exhibited is not found to correspond.'

It will be conceded that Annual Exhibitions of the state of the Arts are not only partially salutary, but that the best effects connected with general improvement may be derived from them. We are told that similar customs prevailed in Greece, as occasions presented themselves, by exhibiting in the Portico: but in Greece the Arts were unshackled by established Institutions, which in modern times have so often proved only the nurseries of baneful influence. On this seemingly paradoxical point, we cannot better satisfy the curiosity of our readers, than by presenting to them the efficient causes in the words of a well-informed reporter:

——"*Si le bien des arts nécessitait la déstruction des Académies, si vicieuses par leur organisation, leur progrès demandait aussi un moyen d'enseignement clair et facile, qui procurât à tous les Citoyens sans bourse les facilités de consulter les grand maitres; ces moyens d' étude se trouvent à faire dans un Musée.*" LENOIR.

In our own country, we admit that the number of Artists has increased since the establishment of a Royal Academy, but here we must stop; since it cannot be granted that improvement has kept proportionable pace. We refer our readers to a comparison between the past and the present catalogues, and to the productions of the past and the present exhibitors. We cannot forget that, at its commencement, it displayed the works of Hogarth in his peculiar style, of Reynolds and Gainsborough in portrait, and in history of Mortimer, Penny, Dance, and Joseph Wright (of Derby);—of Wilson, the Seasons dancing their round to the lyre of Apollo, the Storm and distresses of Niobe and her unhappy offspring, and the villa of Cicero at Arpinum, where, in the shades of classic retirement amid torrents and romantic scenery, he points out to Atticus the oak planted by Marius;—Barry's Adam beguiled by the temptation of Eve, Venus rising from the Sea, and Jupiter deluded by the charms of Juno, who had purposely visited Mount Ida;—the Phaeton of Stubbs;—the captivating landscapes of Barrett and Gainsborough;—Marlow's studies in Italy, with Tull's rural scenery;—and a long list of others, of minor abilities. For productions of similar excellence, we have latterly sought in vain; and we see not, therefore, that annual improvement which should exemplify the advantages stated to exist in the Academy by

by the present eulogizing Secretary. Flattery, however gratifying to the objects which it addresses, ill becomes the pages of a publication purporting to be an *Inquiry*, and to contain statements deducible from such investigation.

In our list of the primitive exhibitors, we felt no ambition to avail ourselves of 'the honest accuracy of Highmore and Hudson, nor the classic correctness of Hoare;' and the names of Dance and Reynolds are insulted by any comparison with Battoni and Mengs, especially with the former, the very dreg of the dregs of impotent Art!—Neither is it advantageous to the honoured name of R. Wilson, that he should share the palm with Vernet and Zuccarelli; it would be equally odious to class together Raphael and Carlo Maratti, or Michael Angelo and Lémoin. Mr. H. makes judicious mention, however, of our countrymen Scott, Brookings, More, Hodges, Morland, Cozens, Girtin, and Thomas Sandby in landscape and in architecture. Many of these excelled in the management of tinted drawings, of which class of art it is but candid to mention that the venerable and very ingenious Paul Sandby is the father; yet this kind of performances ranks only in the Arts, as in literature the Pastoral may be compared with Epic Poetry.

To the scope of the *third Part* of Mr. Hoare's Inquiry, we have adverted in the earlier parts of this article; and it is farther connected with his Supplementary *Sketch of the present State of the Arts of Design in England*, which opens with some remarks that well illustrate the subject, and confirm our observations:

'The present moment is considered by artists as teeming with the crisis, not of their own destinies, but of the destiny of their Art in England. The accomplished artist, lately Professor of Painting in the Royal Academy, thus warmly expressed his thoughts, in his introductory lecture of last winter:

"The efficient cause, therefore, why higher art at present is sunk to such a state of inactivity and languor, that it may be doubted whether it will exist much longer, is not a particular one, which private patronage, or the will of an individual, however great, can remove, but a general cause founded on the bent, the manners, the habits, the modes of a nation; and not of one nation alone, but of all who at present pretend to cultivation.

"If the Arts are to rise and flourish, grandeur and beauty must animate the public taste, the artist must be occupied by significant, extensive, varied, important works. What right have we to expect such a revolution in our favour?

"We have now been in possession of an Academy for near half a century: all the intrinsic means of forming a style alternate at our command; professional instruction has never ceased to direct the student,

student, and stimulate emulation; and stipends are granted to relieve the wants of genius, and to finish education by excursions to the former seats of Art. And what is the result? If we apply to our Exhibition, what does it present but a gorgeous display of great and athletic powers, condemned, if not to the beasts, at least to the dictates of fashion and vanity? what, therefore, can be urged against the conclusion, that the Arts are sinking, and threaten to sink still lower, from the want of a demand for great and significant works?"

Mr. Hoare's estimation of the powers of Sir Joshua Reynolds seems to us so justly appropriate, that we shall transcribe it in his own words;

'The historical efforts of Reynolds discover beautiful, but vague, combinations, and impressive, but desultory grandeur; these are germs of historic talent which, had they been matured by an earlier disposition of the nation to the encouragement of the Arts, would, no doubt, have risen to a much higher degree of excellence; at the same time it would partake of infatuated partiality, to assert, that the compositions or the conceptions of Reynolds would ever have equalled the Homeric poem of the Capella Sistina, or the no less Homeric drama of the Vatican.'

Of Hogarth, but one opinion can be entertained: a Phœnix in the Art which probably never before appeared in any country, he was in painting a moral satirist: not a painter 'of graphic comedy and farce,' as Mr. H. expresses it. We conceive that comedy had no farther existence in Hogarth's representations, than as a mere agent to convey to the mind those sublime moral truths, which appear to be the only objects of his endeavours in his particular line of Art. As Shakspeare wrote to the passions connected with moral sentiment, so did Hogarth paint for the instruction of every age, and "through the eye correct the heart." With these qualifications, and a few other exceptions, we admit the propriety of Mr. H.'s remarks:

'In subjects of sportive fancy, and in domestic or familiar history, the native and characteristic powers of our English painters have been chiefly shewn. At the head of the latter class stands HOGARTH, a painter unequalled in the graphic Comedy, and Farce (if the term may be pardoned) of nature. His eulogy has been so often written, and lately so amply displayed by a learned and noble author, that it would be here superfluous; but it may be allowable to remark, that in the conspicuous prominence of the intellectual and moral properties of his art, in the wit, humour, and patriotism of his scenes, his powers in other professional points have been chiefly overlooked. The picture of the *Boys playing on the Tomb-stone*, at the same time that it lays claim to some of the highest moral historic merits, is an instance of the most skilful, and it may be added, *grand* composition. In the series of *Marriage à la Mode*, several of the subjects are painted with a breadth, force, and clearness of colour, which have seldom been

been surpassed; the *Breakfast Table* is the most striking instance of these merits.'

On the state of Sculpture, and the Artists who have contributed to its rise, with the exception of one name, we heartily concur in the sentiments of the author; and with the highest satisfaction we quote the following passage:

'Banks was among those who most zealously sought the enlargement of professional knowledge in the stores of Rome. A mind ardently roused to competition with the works of excellence which he beheld, and a hand trained from infancy to a ready expression of his conceptions, imparted to his productions an air of ancient art. He gave to his *Cupid* the softness of characteristic form, and spirit and manly energy to his *Caractacus*. But he returned to a country not yet capable of feeling his worth; the statue of Cupid which he brought home in 1779, found no purchaser, and he was induced, in 1781, to carry it to St. Petersburg, where it was bought by the Empress Catharine, and placed in the gardens of Czarsco-zelo. Banks did not remain at Rome late enough to witness the rising glories of Canova, the only sculptor who could then have contested the palm with him in Italy.

'Bacon's genius was of native growth; he traversed no distant regions for improvement of his art, but drew from the researches of others sufficient food for an active and ready fancy. His conceptions were quick and sparkling, his execution polished, and his whole work characteristically graceful. A *Britannia* brandishing her thunderbolt, and an *infant Orphan* imploring shelter for his shuddering frame, are alike the productions of graceful and tender feelings.'

The best specimen from Bacon's chisel, and an admirable specimen it is, was erected at the expence of the country to William Pitt the great Earl of Chatham, in Westminster Abbey. The design is chaste, classic, and sublime: but the materials are said to have been given to the sculptor by a celebrated dramatic author, which will be readily believed, since the generality of Bacon's compositions exhibit no features of learning, no fine powers of intellectual faculties, no display of genius curbed by science. His general style of composition, as in Guildhall, is divested equally of the pathos and of the sublime, which are so necessary to the decorous completion of monumental representations. Yet Bacon could not fail to satisfy the generality of observers, by his flowery wreaths and dimpled smiles, garbed in silks and sattins:

> *"Æmilium circa ludum faber imus et ungues*
> *Exprimet, et molles imitabitur ære capillos;*
> *Infelix operis summâ, quia ponere totum*
> *Nesciet."* —— HOR. *de Arte Poet.*

Banks, with an uncommon discernment of all that constituted excellence in sculpture under the prosperous governments of

Trajan and the Antonines, raised in his mind an elevated standard. Generally speaking, his conceptions were manly and appropriate; he seldom betrayed any low and vulgar conceits; and, properly rejecting the imitation of puerilities, his compositions were impressive, and his manner of execution was equally striking. Yet, from whatsoever cause it may have arisen, his *last* great works, the two national monuments in St. Paul's Cathedral (especially the last,) have wholly deceived public expectation: a remark which we must extend also to the other monuments which have been recently placed in that edifice, and some of which, considered as compositions, are indeed contemptible. From the want of a more efficient mode of proceeding in the selection of designs for our public monuments, it is too probable that we shall lose the advantages which might hence be derived to our national character, and that they will be converted into a source only of wasteful expenditure and eventual contempt. So entirely have the ends and objects of those which are already erected been overlooked by the persons under whose direction they were ordered, that even the propriety of inscriptions seems forgotten; and the only index to the very *names* of the heroes who fell in the service of their country, and to whom that grateful country has devoted these monuments, is exhibited by the vergers in formidable charcoal! Is this omission intended to avoid remarks similar to those of the judicious and refined Addison? Had that elegant critic been alive to have observed the public Monument to General Wolfe, he would have pronounced it not less a satire on the employers than a libel on public taste: yet for this vile production was the model of Roubilliac set aside. Nothing less will correct this evil than a general and candid address to liberal artists of every description, who are qualified to practise the imitative arts, from the managing committee empowered by the executive government to solicit the production of designs; under the condition that each unsuccessful candidate shall be handsomely remunerated, and that each design so procured shall be publicly exhibited with free admission, until the final decision takes place: —then, and not till then, can all suspicion of partiality subside. A few hundred pounds thus expended would be money well bestowed, and might save reproach in the expenditure of many thousands. The famed monument of Cardinal Richelieu was designed by Charles Le Brun, and executed by the sculptor Gerardon; and no person, however elevated his station by the accident of life, should consider it as beneath his dignity to correct past errors:

> "The first of virtue, vice is to abhor,
> The first of wisdom is to err no more."

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With regard to Architecture, Mr. H. thus remarks:

'Although the consideration of the national importance of Architecture has not been made a part of the principal subject of the foregoing chapters, yet in a general view of the present state of the Arts in England, it cannot fail to demand an equal attention.

'The productions of Architecture are necessarily more obvious to general observation than those of the two former branches of art, but its progress is more difficult to be ascertained, on account of its multifarious operations, and of the great number of undefined degrees which it is capable of admitting both in works and artificers. The leading features by which it is to be distinguished in our country are few; the nature of our state, with regard to its financial regulations, renders the construction of great public edifices very rare in England. Projects are often discussed, and long deferred. Plans of a Residence for our Sovereign, and of a Senate-house for our Parliament, have been by turns proposed and neglected; new churches, and new mansions of our nobility, have been sufficiently numerous; but amongst our recent buildings nothing is yet to be seen resembling the "solemn temple," or "the gorgeous palace."

Thus far we agree: but we cannot acquiesce in many assertions made in subsequent pages. We allow and join in all the praises bestowed on the public edifices of Blenheim, the Bridges of Westminster and Blackfriars, Newgate, and the late building in Oxford Street called the Pantheon; though why it was so named, we are at a loss to say.

Before undeniable praise is established respecting Somerset Place, be it noted that, in the designs and construction, every possible assistance from patronage, aided by the public purse supplied by a liberal Parliament, gave to Sir William Chambers opportunities rarely known in this country. The Bank affords a similar instance. The question is, whether Sir William Chambers, and others under nearly the same opportunities of following their own devices, have sufficiently availed themselves of every advantage that protection and accident flung in their way. Somerset House is composed of many imitations, and some not of the most approved examples: it is a jumble of the French and the Italian, the best parts being feeble imitations of Caprarola and the Papa Julia. As to the Bank, Goddess-like, it disdains comparison!

Mr. Hoare's comment on Inigo Jones having *introduced Palladio into England*, (as he is pleased to phrase it,) as well as Hogarth's opinion, is almost unworthy of any notice. Hogarth's remark relative to Palladio, as here quoted, is merely the sarcastic observation of a sensible and discriminating mind, that the best examples are liable to be abused in their application. The intelligent use, which Inigo Jones made of Palladio's works, will be readily seen by those who are qualified to decide on the

intrinsic merits of his celebrated labours; which will adorn this land as long as they shall be unmutilated by the numerous hosts of prevailing fashionable novelty-mongers: who, under the pretence of restoration, have obtruded their own false ideas of taste, to the destruction of order and of whatever was estimable in the designs of our great countryman. Properly to restore his works, the persons so employed must possess the energies of his mind; a mind like that of Lord Burlington, happily characterized by a noble author, whose writings we have had occasion both to censure and to commend:—"Never was protection and great wealth more generously and more judiciously diffus-d: his enthusiasm for the works of Inigo Jones was so active, that he repaired the church of Covent Garden because it was the production of that great master."—Speaking of Chiswick House, as an illustration of its then characteristic, the same noble author remarks, "the larger court dignified by picturesque Cedars, and the classic scenery of the small court that unites the old and the new house, are more worth seeing than many fragments of antient grandeur which our travellers visit under all the dangers attendant on long voyages."——The beautiful appendage of the small court, worthy of the best times of Imperial Rome for its chastity of design and harmony of proportions, is alas! no more. The classical ideas of Lord Burlington, which arose in his ennobled mind, enriched by study and matured by experience, have been superseded by a person whose competency and education are made manifest by the operations which he has been suffered to perform.

We turn from such sacrilegious improvements to the memory of a venerable, lamented, admired, yet neglected Architect, the virtuous Revett; whose education was learned and extensive, in Literature as well as in all that regards the culture of the Arts, particularly Architecture, and whose knowlege was not inferior in Science. He was gifted also with many graceful, amiable, and manly accomplishments; his modesty and integrity were only to be exceeded by his intelligence; with his pursuit of knowlege, his mind imbibed the purest sentiments towards others; and his pleasing and unaffected manners ensured universal esteem. He may be said to have given, in a great measure, the profits and the fame of his labours to others; of which the publications of the Athenian and Ionian Antiquities are memorable examples. Thesedrawings were made from accurate admeasurements, and are performances that have greatly contributed to enrich our stock of information regarding the small remains of Attic structures.—Revett was totally ignorant of those shrewd tricks which are but too successfully practised in corrupt society: he contented himself with saying little and performing much.

Mr. Hoare's statement of Revett's labours is just, but by far too concise. We are of opinion also that the publication of Le Roy, though not worthy of the credit which should be given to several of Revett's admeasurements, deserved to have been mentioned in better terms than Mr. H. is inclined to bestow.—To Robert Adam, on the contrary, we think that he is too indulgent. No man, indeed, knew better than *he* did the advantages to be obtained by the introduction of novelty, which in his practice he endeavoured to realize; and he certainly was a man of genius, taste, and ready wit: but, granting that he effected some good in correcting a false and contemptible system, especially in the interior ornamental decorations of our buildings, he also did much harm by opening the door to every innovator, who may be deficient in that education which must qualify a real judge, and in Mr. Adam's powers of application.—Having closed his eulogium on our deliverers from a slavishness of taste in Architecture, Mr. H. thus mentions the name, and in his opinion the humble pretensions of William Kent: 'Something of a similar kind had been previously attempted by Kent, an artist of great celebrity, under the patronage of the Earl of Burlington, in the reign of George II. but the attempt was at best but feebly executed.' For this, thanks to Kent's better judgment. To the observation made by Mr. H. in the following sentence,—'Taste, however, unchecked by the existence of any great standards of art in this country, deviates hourly into numberless excentric paths, and our modes of building are now nearly as various as the humours of our minds,'—we call the fixed attention of the real lovers of Architecture; since it contains a confession, the influence which is absolutely necessary to the advancement of the science. To this wise precept, for which we have been advocating throughout the whole of our review, we consider Kent to have been particularly attentive; and for his judicious conduct we cannot withhold our tribute of respect. We see nothing of our modern vagaries in the Architecture of Raphael and of Angelo. We must think, however unfashionable may be the opinion, that the name of Kent should have occupied a more distinguished place in the pages of the volume before us; and that he should have been made a principal actor in the drama, instead of scene-shifter to Robert Adam, or any of Adam's cotemporaries. To the abilities of Kent, they and their country are much indebted for the examples which he left them in every department of the liberal arts; which he so successfully studied in Italy, and practised on his return, under the patronage of the Earl of Burlington. Painting, however, must be excepted; since in this branch we admit that his conceptions were very poor, and his

execution was equally bad. By his regulating standard, he fixed the mark for a sure guidance to others in architecture and in landscape gardening, of a classical and very high cast; aided by enrichments of sculpture and other works of art, which are requisite combinations to the completion of splendor and magnificence. Kent made his own designs, and his own drawings; his plans were well adapted to their several purposes; and a fitness and an unity pervaded the proportions of his apartments, which were impressively striking. He practised much in Architecture, and with deserved reputation. Among many others of his private buildings, we cannot particularize the façade of Devonshire House (towards Piccadilly) without commending the dignified and unaffected simplicity, and the harmonious proportions of the individual parts, as well as the whole display of the court of approach and offices.

To conclude: we regard Mr. Hoare as intitled to the thanks and commendation of all lovers of the Arts, for the present attempt to excite just attention to them, at a time when he seems to consider that their situation in this country is very critical, and that they are in danger of perishing for ever. Ardently do we wish that his efforts may produce a beneficial effect; and much are we inclined to applaud the salutary hints and cautions which his work occasionally presents. It is with regret, however, that we feel persuaded, and that we have felt ourselves obliged in the course of this long article to endeavour to shew, that the work is not satisfactory nor conclusive; that many of the positions and deductions are merely theoretical; that it is not written with that boldness of impartiality and scrupulous observance of justice, which its title and its object demanded: but that, on the contrary, it is in too many respects calculated to promote the growth of flattery at the expence of fact; that some names have been placed in too strong a light, and others have been kept too much in the shade, in order to produce stage effect; and that, altogether, the performance is better calculated to please the superficial observer, than to become a sure guide in the investigation which it professes to assist.

An establishment of recent date in our metropolis, called *the British Institution*, attracts much of Mr. Hoare's notice and of his praise. We should willingly befriend any aid afforded to the ostensible object of this Society: but its arrangements are yet too incomplete and too mutable to be fairly open to decided approbation. The sale of performances already exhibited is a minor consideration. Let it afford to artists an opportunity of comparison with works that have stood the test of time and criticism, let a fair contention be thus excited,

excited, and much advancement in the arts may be the result. Mr. Hoare, indeed, mixes with his encomiums some qualifying sentences and some admonitions; and these we seriously recommend to the patrons of the Institution.

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Art. XI. *History of Great Britain*, from the Revolution, 1688, to the Conclusion of the Treaty of Amiens, 1802. By William Belsham. 12 Volumes. 8vo. 5l. 8s. Boards. R. Phillips.

The British Public is no stranger to the general characteristics of Mr. Belsham's History; which, as now before us, forms a regularly progressive work, but of which all the volumes, excepting the 11th and 12th, have been previously printed in detached portions and in irregular chronological order*. The same animated and glowing style, and the same popular principles and sentiments, which marked his preceding labors, will probably still attract the approbation of his admirers; while the exceptions which have been made against his prepossessions and his ardour will equally continue to be urged. Ever the friends to freedom both of principle and discussion, but alike the opposers of intemperance either of conduct or of language, we adverted in former articles to an occasional degree of excess in Mr. Belsham's diction, which was little suitable to the dignity of history. In the preface to his 11th volume, he enters into an explanation of this part of his conduct; and speaking of himself in the third person,

'Far be from him,' he says, 'that "frigid philosophy," which, in treating upon subjects the most interesting to the human welfare and happiness, can satisfy itself with that sort of impartiality, or rather of monkish insensibility, which confines its efforts and its object to a simple and naked recital of facts, without adverting to principles, or to the bearings and tendencies of different and opposite systems of action. On the contrary, he has labored, invariably and assiduously, to inculcate such principles and sentiments as have been proved by the reasonings of the ablest political writers, by the practice of the greatest statesmen, and by the uniform tenor of historical evidence, to be in the highest degree beneficial to mankind. For any occasional warmth of language, arising from this source, he trusts that the Public will think an apology very unnecessary: and, on the calmest retrospection of his own views and motives, he has none to offer.'

He admits, however, in the subsequent paragraph, as he had before allowed in a letter which he addressed to us †, that the animadversions were not without foundation:

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* See Rev. N. S. Vols. xiii. xvii. xxxiv. and xxvii.
† Ibid. Vol. xxxvii. N. S. p. 221.

X

'The critical reader will nevertheless find, that various expressions, bordering upon anger and asperity, are, in the latest edition of the preceding volumes of this history, altered and modified; and, in those now offered to the Public, the author has been solicitous not to transgress the limits of that freedom which is the inseparable privilege and characteristic of historical composition.'

In the additional volumes, which now form the only subject of our notice, Mr. B. commences with the Session of Parliament in 1798-9; and here the important event of the Union with Ireland early attracts the notice of the historian. On this topic, he is rather reserved, but on the whole he seems to approve the measure.——He is next called to an event, the record of which, according to his detail of it, must indeed be unwelcome to British ears, since in it the honour of Britain is declared to have received a foul and deep stain; we refer to the conduct adopted towards its revolutionary subjects, by the imbecil and immoral court of Naples, to which the great Lord Nelson was a party. In noticing the memoirs of our naval hero, we have already alluded to these transactions: of which, until we are more fully informed of them, we shall continue to speak in terms of reserve which their nature would not permit us to use, if we were decidedly convinced that the present representations of them admitted of no material correction. We expect shortly to attend to other accounts of this affair, and at present shall no farther advert to it than by quoting a part of Mr. Belsham's statement:

'The members of the Neapolitan government had taken possession of the two forts of the capital; viz. Castel Nuovo and Castel del Uovo: as also of the Castell-a-mare, six leagues from Naples. The latter immediately capitulated, on terms of safety to the lives, persons, and property of the garrison, to the English squadron commanded by commodore Foote. The capture of the two former was attended with more difficulty. The patriots, who had at first taken the resolution of burying themselves under the ruins of their liberty, fought with incredible valor. Feeling, however, on receiving a second summons of surrender, that, deprived of all external succour, their eventual resistance would serve only to increase the misfortunes of their country, they at length decided on a treaty, in concert with citizen Mejan, commander of the fort of St. Elmo, garrisoned by the French; and a joint capitulation was accordingly signed, June 22, upon condition of their being allowed to march out with the honors of war; of security, both to persons and property, for all those in the two forts; and liberty to all, either to remain at Naples, or embark for France on board transports to be provided and equipped by his Neapolitan majesty. The capitulation thus solemnly agreed on was ratified by cardinal Ruffo, vicar-general of the king of the Two Sicilies, by commodore Foote, and by the respective commanders of the Russian and Turkish squadrons, the last of whom affixed his mark

mark and seal, consisting of a cimetar and half-moon. Hostages were, agreeably to the tenor of the treaty, delivered on the one side; and on the other, the prisoners of all descriptions were set at liberty.

'While the capitularies, to the number of about 1500, who had declared their intention of emigrating, were waiting for the vessels which were to convey them to France, lord Nelson arrived with his whole fleet in the bay of Naples, having on board the Anglo Neapolitan ambassador, sir William Hamilton, and his lady. On the evening of the 26th of June the patriots evacuated their forts, and embarked on board the transports prepared for them, and which were moored alongside the English fleet. On the next day the members of the executive commission, a great part of those of the legislative commission, the whole of the officers who had occupied the first ranks of the republic, and others who had been marked by the court of Sicily, were taken out of the transports, and carried on board the British admiral's own ship. Among these was the celebrated Dominico Cerilli, above thirty years the intimate friend of the English ambassador. On the deck of the admiral's ship stood sir William Hamilton and his lady, surveying, with curious attention, these devoted victims, bound hand and foot like the vilest criminals. After this review, these martyrs at the shrine of liberty were distributed among the different ships of the fleet. The remainder of the revolutionists were shut up in the dungeons of the castles which they had surrendered on the faith of the treaty.

'A few days subsequent to these transactions, the king of Naples, accompanied by his minister Acton, arrived from Palermo on board an English frigate. He immediately declared, by an edict, that it never was his intention to capitulate with *rebels*, and that consequently the fate of those who were in the transports, or in the forts, was to depend entirely upon his justice and clemency. And by a second edict the property of the patriots was put under sequestration. Against this procedure, remonstrances were in vain made by the commanders of the coalesced powers who had signed the articles of the capitulation.

'Wearied by the cruelties they suffered, and emboldened by the sanctity of the treaties so recently concluded, the prisoners on board the ships in the bay at length addressed a letter to admiral Nelson, in which they stated, in clear and specific terms, the conditions to which they were entitled. "After the arrival," say they, "of the British fleet in this road, commanded by your excellency, the capitulation was begun to be put in execution. The garrisons of the forts, on their part, set at liberty the state prisoners and the English prisoners of war, and gave up to the troops of his Britannic majesty the gate of the royal palace which leads to the new fort: and on the other side, the troops of his majesty the emperor of all the Russias attended the march of the garrison, with all the honors of war, out of the forts. It is now twenty-four days that we are lying in this road, unprovided with every thing necessary to existence. We have nothing but bread to eat; we drink nothing but putrid water, or wine mingled with sea-water; and we have nothing but the bare planks to sleep on. Our houses have been entirely pillaged, and the

greater

greater part of our relations either imprisoned or massacred. We are persuaded that all the treatment which we suffer, after having capitulated, and after having on our side put the articles of the capitulation religiously into execution, is entirely unknown to your excellency, and to his Sicilian majesty, your fidelity and his benevolence being engaged in our deliverance. The delay of the execution of the capitulation gives us room to claim and implore his and your justice, in order that a treaty concluded with four of the most civilised powers of Europe, who have always appreciated the inviolability of treaties, should be executed as speedily as possible. We hope that, by means of your good offices with his Sicilian majesty, due execution will be given to the articles of a capitulation which has been signed with good faith, and religiously fulfilled on the part of the garrison." The answer of lord Nelson to this moving address will be for ever memorable in history. "I have," said this renowned hero, "shown your paper to your *gracious* king, who must be the best and only judge of the merits and demerits of his subjects." What! was the king of Naples the only judge whether the articles of a treaty, to the strict observance of which the faith and honor of Britain were irrevocably engaged, should, or should not, be carried into execution? Could so monstrous a proposition be advanced with seriousness, or heard without scorn and amazement?

'After the surrender of the fort Castell-a-mare, commodore Foote had shown the most anxious solicitude that the conditions granted to the garrison should be punctually performed. "I entreat you," said this gallant officer to the commander of the fortress for the king of Naples, who had, as it appears, detained some effects belonging to the officers of the garrison, "to observe, that I am highly interested in seeing these gentlemen satisfied; since such is the condition of the capitulation: which is necessarily sacred." The whole body of Neapolitan revolutionists being thus consigned to remediless ruin, by the British admiral, in open, and almost avowed, violation of the faith of Britain, solemnly and publicly pledged, a horrible scene commenced; of which the view, and even the relation, might suffice to rouse the most insensible to indignation, to melt the most obdurate to pity.'

With these proceedings, the author is gratified in contrasting the humane and honorable behaviour of a gallant British officer, the companion and esteemed friend of Nelson, on a scene not very distant from that of which we have been speaking, viz. the conduct of Captain Trowbridge, on the occasion of the surrender of Rome to the British naval force:

'It was determined to enter into a negotiation with the English, who proposed the same capitulation as had taken place at Gaeta. The British squadron was under the direction of commodore Trowbridge; an officer of the highest reputation. In consequence of the positive instructions he received from Naples, the British commander was obliged to make a formal demand of the French governor, to deliver up the Neapolitan patriots who had fled for refuge to Rome. General Garnier nobly answered, "that he would never consent to

an action so unworthy; but that the French would rather sacrifice their own lives with those of their friends."

'The first name on the fatal list happened to be that of the princess de Belmonte; and when the determination of the French commandant was made known to the commodore, he is said to have signified very intelligibly his high approbation of it. He knew what had passed at Naples. He felt how paramount to all orders or instructions, was the honor and dignity of a British soldier. "I never will become the executioner of the vengeance of the queen of Naples!" was the indignant declaration of this gallant officer. This being perfectly understood, a capitulation was signed 6th Vendemiaire, (Sept. 27); conformably to the articles of which, ROME and its dependencies, for the first time since the foundation of that famous capital of the world, surrendered to the arms of BRITAIN:—an event than which, had the awful book of destiny been laid open to the view of the Julian or Augustan age, nothing more calculated to excite amazement could have occurred in all its records.

'The twelfth and other concurrent articles of the treaty of capitulation imported that "such citizens of Rome as shall now form, or have heretofore formed, a part of the constituted authorities of the Roman republic; and *those also* who shall have served the republican cause by their patriotic works, or taken up arms for that purpose, shall be at liberty to depart with their property at the same time with the French troops, and on the same terms as they do." And by other articles it was agreed, "that transports should be provided by the English commander, and victualled, for the conveyance of the above descriptions of persons to Villa Franca, Antibes, or Toulon; and that such Romans as choose to remain, shall suffer no molestation." The last article even expressly stipulates, "in case of any difficulty arising with respect to the interpretation of the articles of this convention, that such articles shall be explained in favor of the French and their allies."

'During the transient existence of the Neapolitan republic, the duke of Cansano had been sent as ambassador to Rome, and many other Neapolitans of high rank were also resident in that city at the period of its investment. Even previous to its surrender, the English commander took an anxious interest in the fate of these unfortunate exiles. He precipitated their departure from the port of Civita Vecchia; and, on their being unavoidably forced back to that place, commodore Trowbridge, inflexible in his humanity, again enabled the vessel to put to sea, and the proscribed fugitives were at length happily landed at Toulon. In return, they paid him—and it was all they could pay—those grateful tears of admiration which are shed over noble deeds. Thus the honor of the British name was vindicated; and the world, as in other and better times, saw that it did not without reason aspire to a rivalship with that of ancient Rome.'

In relating the Siege of Acre, Mr. B. makes some just observations on the singularity of the contest, especially on the circumstance of British Christian Knights fighting in defence of the Turkish Infidels. To the account of Bonaparte's having massacred

massacred the Turkish prisoners taken at Jaffa, he gives full credit: but to that of the poisoning of the French who were sick in the Hospitals, he thinks that no belief is due.

Throughout these volumes, the writer has depicted Bonaparte in colours much more favourable than those in which we apprehend he would now represent him. Historians, when they describe living personages, ought to bear in mind the famed answer of Nero to the Roman senate in his good days, "*quum meruero.*"—How pleasing is it to be called a moment from contemplating this restless Despot, to view a character which united all that was great and good in our nature! we mean that most enviable and greatest of his cotemporaries, George Washington. We think that Mr. Belsham is more cautious in his praise of this renowned patriot than he should have been: we cannot admit that 'Washington was better adapted to defensive than offensive war:' the affair of Trentham, and the catastrophe at York town, ill agree with the supposition; and we are not aware of the grounds which warrant him in limiting 'his reach of penetration and ardour of enterprize.' Let his slender means be considered, and his atchievements be set against them, and we shall be sensible that no mind was ever more indebted to its own resources, nor any man ever victorious over greater difficulties.

Mr. Belsham has inserted an elaborate narrative of the war of the Mysore; which is highly favourable to the late Governor-General, Lord Wellesley.

The memorable speech of Mr. Pitt, in the parliamentary discussion occasioned by the pacific overture of Bonaparte when he attained the consulship, is here severely criticised. The ability displayed in it was universally admitted at the time, but it was considered more as a display of oratory than as a correct statement of facts. Nearly three years had elapsed since the termination of the iniquitous and treacherous career of Bonaparte in Italy; yet in all that time British subjects in general had received no other accounts of it than such as proceeded from revolutionary authors; the harangue of Mr. Pitt, therefore, produced no effect beyond the circle of his devoted partisans; and Mr. Belsham does not appear to have been undeceived when he penned the present narrative, since he represents Mr. Pitt's statements as originating in misrepresentation and malignity; whereas, as far as they regarded the progress of the French General in Italy, they fell very short of the truth. It is no more than justice to Mr. Pitt to admit that his conception of the principles, views, and aims of the French chief, was extremely correct: but the public had not been prepared for the information, and did not give to it the credit

which

which it deserved. That Mr. Belsham should have been ignorant of these matters, at the time of writing this history, is to us a matter of some surprize.

On the subject of the dispute with the Northern powers, in regard to belligerent and neutral rights, the question is very fairly and intelligibly stated by Mr. Belsham: but we by no means concur in the violent and unqualified censure which he pronounces on the measures then adopted. It must be allowed that, if England had been imperious, the neutrals had acted fraudulently to a prodigious extent. The author lays great stress on the universal consent given to the principles of the armed neutrality: but it will be seen that the parties were all either weaker belligerents, or interested neutrals. He fairly admits, however, that this consent is not binding on England; and that she has still the right of asserting the former principle, even at the hazard of war. It is to this point that the question ultimately resolves itself. If neutral privileges are pushed so far as to operate as succour to an enemy, a belligerent has undoubtedly the right *by violent means* of putting a stop to the intercourse, if that power deems it expedient to proceed such lengths.

In treating of the scarcity of provisions in this country, Mr. Belsham displays much information and truly enlightened views. The conduct of the chief magistrate of the metropolis in that difficult crisis was universally applauded; and Mr. B. describes it with due praise.

Considerable discrimination and ability are also manifested by the historian, in examining the several steps of the negotiation which ended in the peace of Amiens. Its authors had the countenance of the greatest names on that occasion: but this circumstance does not prevent Mr. B. from representing in a just light the weak parts of the transaction.

Though in these volumes Mr. Belsham may have been more sparing of harsh terms than in the preceding portions of his history, some have still escaped him which had better have been omitted. Altogether, we meet with nothing in these concluding pages, which calls on us either to add to or alter the observations which we have on former occasions applied to the work. If its auhor be too much the partisan, we cannot overlook that he is the supporter and follower of that denomination of Englishmen, under whose administration the country has ever most flourished; and who have cherished and protected those principles, to which it owes its pre-eminence among nations, and all its choicest blessings of society.

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MONTHLY CATALOGUE,
For FEBRUARY, 1807.

MEDICAL, &c.

Art. 12. *An Answer to Dr. Moseley, containing a Defence of Vaccination.* By John Ring, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, and of the Medical Societies of London and Paris. 8vo. pp. 290. 6s. Boards. Murray.

Mr. Ring, who has proved himself one of the most zealous advocates of vaccination, here undertakes to repel the violent attack of Dr. Moseley, by turning the weapons of his antagonist against himself, and assailing him with that species of declamatory wit which occupies so large a part of the doctor's own pages. He has certainly been in some degree successful, and has occasionally made some *fair hits:* but, on the whole, we cannot commend this method of conducting a controversy, even when it may be justified by the previous outrages of the enemy.

This volume is not, however, deficient in valuable matter of a different kind. We have been amused with the account which it gives of the opposition manifested by some individuals, against the small-pox inoculation, at its first introduction into this country: on which occasion, the noted Sir Richard Blackmore was particularly prominent, aided by Mr. Tanner, one of the surgeons of St. Thomas's hospital. They asserted that the preventative power of inoculation was contrary both to reason and experience, and that more deaths occurred after the operation, than from the disease in its natural form; and they boldly accused those persons of falsehood who maintained the contrary opinion. Some extracts are also given from a sermon preached by a Mr. Massey, in 1722, in which he proceeded, in the most abusive strain, to declaim against the crime of inoculation. He endeavoured to prove that the small-pox was the disease with which Job was afflicted, and that the Devil was the inoculator; and he afterward seriously laid it down as a principle, that it is impious to attempt to alleviate or remove any of the disorders which are sent from God to afflict mankind. Even so late as the middle of the last century, a cry was raised against inoculation, by two physicians of considerable eminence; who adduced many instances of its failure, and of the evils which ensued from it.—From these documents, the friends of vaccination will perceive that their predecessors had to encounter at least an equal share of prejudice and illiberality with themselves.

Mr Ring then proceeds to examine the value of the evidence which has been cited by Dr. Moseley against the vaccination; and he particularly adverts to the case related by Dr. John Sims, in which a person received the small-pox who was said to have previously been twice affected with the casual cow-pox. The well-known pamphlet of Mr. Goldson is also noticed; and the case of a child of a Mr. Bowen, who, after several unsuccessful attempts at variolous inoculation subsequently to vaccination, became at length infected. On these and other similar occurrences, Mr. Ring offers a number of

of judicious observations, and displays considerable address in obtaining an authentic statement of the transactions. In some instances, he has it in his power to shew that Dr. Moseley's account is completely erroneous, and in others that it is essentially defective. Altogether, we think that Mr. Ring's performance possesses considerable merit: but we should have bestowed on it more unqualified commendation, had it less resembled the work of Dr. Moseley. Bos.

Art. 13. *Observations on Vaccine Inoculation;* tending to confute the Opinion of Dr. Rowley and others. By Henry Fraser, M.D. &c. 8vo. 2s. Highley.

We heartily commend the zeal which Dr. Fraser displays, but we are sorry that we cannot bestow equal praise on the execution of his design. We are indeed obliged to acknowlege that this tract appears to us remarkable solely for a pompous style, which is altogether inconsistent with its subject. The only part of the pamphlet which can be considered as interesting is the attempt to prove that the cow-pox does not originate from the grease of the horse: he animadverts with some severity on the conduct of Dr. Jenner in adopting this idea and he considers it to have been one of the principal obstacles to the general diffusion of the practice of vaccination. Do.

Art. 14. *Vaccinæ Vindiciæ*; or, Vindication of the Cow-pox: containing a Refutation of the Cases and Reasonings on the same, in Dr. Rowley's late extraordinary Pamphlet against Vaccination, in Letters to Dr. Moseley, by Robert John Thornton, M.D. &c. Nos. 1. and 2. 8vo. 1s. 6d each. Symonds.

These two numbers form the commencement of a monthly publication, written by Dr. Thornton, the object of which is to counteract the unfavorable impression produced on the public mind by Drs. Rowley and Moseley respecting the cow-pox. After having pointed out some of the extravagant and indecorous sentiments advanced by these writers, particularly the former of them, Dr. T. proves, in opposition to their positive assertion, that the Jennerian society has taken every possible pains to investigate the supposed cases of failure. A committee of 25 practitioners was formed for this express purpose; and from a very judicious report which they published, and which is inserted in the work before us, it appears that they executed their office with diligence and fidelity.

Dr. Thornton enters on the important task of examining the adverse cases of Dr. Rowley and the other opposers of vaccination. He selects some of those to which the greatest credit has been attached, and which have produced the most effect on the public mind; and, by referring to the practitioners who performed the inoculation, and who saw the cases during their progress, he has shewn, in the most satisfactory manner, that the statements published by Drs. Rowley and Moseley are defective in the most essential particulars, and that some of them are altogether without foundation.—As friends of truth and humanity, we feel greatly obliged to Dr. Thornton for the zeal and perseverance which he has exercised on this subject. In the title, Dr. T. writes *Vindicia*, instead of *Vindiciæ*. Do.

Art.

Art. 15. *Cow-Pock Inoculation vindicated and recommended from Matters of Fact.* By Rowland Hill, A.M. 12mo. 1s. Darton and Harvey.

The reverend author of this pamphlet is well known to have been one of the most zealous advocates for vaccination, and, unlike some gentlemen of his profession, he has added knowlege to his zeal. Before he ventured to enter on the practice, he adopted every possible means of acquiring all the necessary information on the subject, and the pages before us afford a sufficient proof that his endeavours were successful. The tract is principally designed for the perusal of the unprofessional, for which purpose it is well adapted by its plain style and familiar modes of illustration. It furnishes, however, one piece of information which must be interesting to every description of readers; viz. the following account of Mr. Hill's own success in the practice; 'I solemnly assert that, having inoculated in different places not less (*fewer*) that 4840 subjects, independent of 3720 and upwards who have been inoculated at Surrey Chapel School-Room, I have not, as yet, met with *one single failure*; though, on the repetition of my visits, I have at all times made it a point to inquire with the utmost diligence in my power; nor yet, in any one point of view, have I seen any of those distressful consequences that have been brought forward with so much *art* and downright *falsehood*, to alarm the fears and terrify the imaginations of the public.'

We sincerely hope that this little work will have an extensive circulation; since by this means the benevolent views of its author cannot fail to be materially promoted. Bos

Art. 16. *Vaccination vindicated from Misrepresentation and Calumny*, in a Letter to his Patients, by Edward Jones, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, &c. 8vo. 1s. Murray. 1806.

Mr. Jones's principal object is to refute the opinions of Dr. Squirrel; whose positions are so extraordinary, and indeed so repugnant to every feeling of common sense, that we were inclined to question the propriety of making them the subject of a formal reply. Perhaps, however, it may be better not to let any publication, although ever so contemptible, pass entirely without notice; especially where the opinions are advanced with so much confidence as in the work of Dr. Squirrel. The present pamphlet forms a satisfactory answer to that of the author's opponent. Dº

Art. 17. *A Reply to the Anti-Vaccinists*, by James Moore, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons in London. 8vo. 2s. Murray. 1806.

We think that this is decidedly the best treatise which has appeared in the course of the controversy; it is candid, judicious, and spirited. Without giving too much consequence to the antagonists of vaccination, the author fairly states the nature of their arguments; and without descending to any harshness or abuse, he fully refutes them. He justly observes that those who now oppose themselves with the greatest confidence to the cow-pox are the least able to form an accurate judgment on the question, because they made up their minds against it from the time of its being first proposed to the pub-

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lic, and before they had themselves tried its effects or seen it tried by others. He points out, and happily combats, the hypothetical objections employed by Dr. Moseley and his coadjutors, derived from what they call the bestial origin of the disease; and he counteracts, with equal effect, the unfavorable reports that have been so industriously circulated, respecting the complaints said to be left in the system after vaccine inoculation.

Mr. M.'s remarks on medical evidence in general are highly judicious, and cannot be too forcibly impressed on the mind:

'The evidence that is requisite to prove or disprove any proposition in the science of medicine, is of a peculiar kind. It differs entirely from that species of proof which satisfies a Court of Law. Both direct and circumstantial evidence, which would leave no doubt in the breasts of judges and juries, have often not the slightest tendency to render a medical fact even probable. The declarations, and even the oaths of the most conscientious, disinterested, and able men are all insufficient.

'The reason of this is, that few men, even those of considerable capacity, distinguish accurately between opinion and fact.

'When a man asserts he has been cured of a particular disease by a certain drug, he is apt to think he is declaring a fact, which he knows to be true; whereas this assertion includes two opinions, in both of which he may be completely mistaken. The first is an opinion of his having had the disease specified; the second, that the medicine employed removed the disease.'

These observations apply to the case in question in a very particular manner; since it appears, by the confession of Dr. Rowley himself, that this great champion of anti-vaccination was, in all instances of apparent failure, satisfied with the mere assertion of the party concerned; and, without any farther investigation, immediately set down such occurrences in his list of unfavorable cases.—We shall not extend our remarks on this pamphlet, but earnestly recommend it not only to every medical man, but to every person who feels interested in the welfare of his fellow creatures.

Bos.

Art. 18. *The Evidence at large, as laid before the Committee of the House of Commons*, respecting Dr. Jenner's Discovery of Vaccine Inoculation; together with the Debate which followed; and some Observations on the contravening Evidence, &c. By the Rev. G. C. Jenner. 8vo. pp. 240. 6s. Boards. Murray.

Although the principal contents of this volume have already been made known to the world in different ways, we are glad to see them collected and published under their present form. The evidence delivered to parliament on the subject of the cow-pox is so clear and decisive, and embraces a question of so much moment, that it cannot be too widely circulated, nor too frequently impressed on the minds of the inhabitants of these kingdoms. This is rendered still more necessary in consequence of the objections that have lately been started against vaccination; objections which, however futile, have not failed to make an unfavourable impression, and appear to have had the effect of impeding the progress of this most valuable discovery.

very. The Committee of the House of Commons manifested their wisdom, not less than their candor, in bringing forwards all the evidence that was to be obtained against the claims of the petitioner; and the imperfect and confused statements, which were delivered by the opposers of vaccination, afford one of the most powerful proofs of the strength of the cause. Perhaps on no subject, either scientific or medical, was so large a weight of authority ever adduced, and so little thrown into the opposite scale.

Art. 19. *A Dissertation on Ischias*; or the Disease of the Hip-joint, commonly called a Hip Case; and on the Use of the Bath Waters as a Remedy in this Complaint. By William Falconer, M.D. F.R.S. &c. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Cadell and Davies.

This treatise is a re-publication of Dr Falconer's paper inserted in the 6th volume of the Memoirs of the Medical Society; and we have therefore only to refer to p. 145. of this Number of the M. R. for an account of its merits.

EDUCATION.

Art. 20. *A Complete Analysis of the German Language:* or, a Philological and Grammatical View of its Construction, Analogies, and various Properties. By Dr. Render. 8vo. Boards, Symonds.

Dr. Render begins his preface by remarking: 'It will not, perhaps, be thought too harsh, if I assert, that the greater part of German grammars hitherto published have been the offspring of necessity; a circumstance which, while it accounts for their defects, certainly offers no extenuation for them; nor can the warmest philanthropy even wish that mankind should be misled, merely to give subsistence to the propagator of error.' Without inquiring into the justice of this observation, we feel ourselves obliged to add the present Analysis to the number of those children of necessity, or to assign its existence to an equally unkind mother of literary productions; since it is merely a hasty and inaccurate compilation, without philosophical arrangement or new remarks, too minute for the first beginner, and too trifling and unsatisfactory for the more advanced student. Dr. R. has also been guilty of the grossest plagiarism, without mentioning the source from which he has drawn his best materials. Almost whole pages have been copied, some word for word, others in a mutilated state, from Noehden's grammar; and on several occasions the reader is misled by rules being given as general which ought to be only partially applied. The work is swelled by several extracts from Schiller and other German authors, to which a free translation is subjoined.

Art. 21. *An Epitome of Scripture History:* chiefly abstracted from Dr. Watts's short View, &c. 18mo. pp. 323. 4s. Boards. Darton and Harvey.

The juvenile reader is here furnished with an account of the principal events recorded in the Old and New Testament, judiciously abridged, and forming a good compendium of sacred history. The style is perspicuous and attractive, and likely to fix in the memories of

of juvenile readers the events which it is the design of the work to record. A number of plates are introduced. W.Re-s.

Art. 22. *A Visit to London*, containing a description of the Principal Curiosities in the British Metropolis. By S.W. author of a Visit to a Farm House, and the Puzzle for a Curious Girl. 18mo. pp. 192. 2s. Tabart and Co.

It is the object of this tract to give a familiar description of London, and to introduce occasionally such moral reflections as presented themselves out of the circumstances of the narrative. To those young persons, therefore, who may wish to have a concise account of the Metropolis, written in easy language, and which blends entertainment with moral instruction, this little volume will be an acceptable present. Dº

Art. 23 *The Book of Trades*, or, Library of useful Arts. 18mo. 3 Vols. 9s. Half Bound. Tabart and Co.

This work contains a brief report of most of the arts and trades, which conduce to the supply of the necessities and conveniencies of life, adapted to the use of young persons; and as well on account of its imparting to them useful knowlege, as from its furnishing those who are to subsist by their industry with hints for fixing on the employments most congenial to their taste, we think that it is a commendable addition to the juvenile library. The subjects, which are illustrated by characteristic Plates, are sixty in number; and though, since they are so numerous, complete information cannot be expected, sufficient is given to awaken the curiosity of young minds and to induce them to make farther inquiries respecting the objects in which they may be most interested. Dº

Art. 24. *Elements of useful Knowlege, in Geography, History, and other Sciences:* drawn up for the use of Children in questions and answers. By J. Allbut, Master of Bromsgrove-Lickey School. 12mo. 10 Numbers, price 4d. each. Button and Co.

Geography, Astronomy, Natural Philosophy, History, Chronology, Grammar, and Arithmetic, are the topics here treated. The compilement is intended as an introductory book for children, and, being written in a catechetical form, it may help to fix in their memories the first rudiments of science. Dº

Art. 25. *Le Nouveau La Bruyère;* The New La Bruyère, or, The Well Educated Children. By Peter Blanchard. 2 Vols. 18mo. Didier and Tebbett.

Mr Blanchard here supplies lessons for teaching young persons to conduct themselves through life. The subject is divided into three parts, on the duties of Morality, Virtue, and Civility: those of the first, according to the author, include the duties only which justice requires; those of the second, all benevolent and disinterested actions; and those of the third comprehend the proper manner in which the several duties are to be performed. The work consists of dialogues between a father and his son and daughter: and considerable pains are taken, by placing the subjects in various lights, to bring them to the comprehension of juvenile understandings. To those young

persons who wish to exercise themselves in reading French, the perusal of these little volumes will be particularly useful, as not only enabling them to improve themselves in the language, but also giving them valuable rules concerning propriety of conduct. They are neatly printed, and ornamented with copper-plate engravings.

Art. 26. *An Essay on the Elements, Accents, and Prosody of the English Language*; intended to have been printed as an Introduction to Mr. Boucher's Supplement of Johnson's Dictionary. By Jonathan Odell, M.A. 12mo. pp. 205. 4s. 6d. Boards. Lackington and Co. 1806.

In this Essay, Mr. Odell professes to correct the mistakes into which Sheridan, Walker, and others have fallen respecting the subjects mentioned in the title. To have just notions of these matters is of considerable importance, and the public is indebted to the Author for the pains which he has taken respecting them. In the number and distribution of the letters on articulate sounds, he differs from former writers; our letters, according to him, ought to represent the several sounds expressed in the language, and should be twenty-nine; of these, seven are vowels, twenty-one are consonants, and the aspirate *h*; to these he adds the lengthened sounds of six vowels, but proposes that they should be represented by a mark over the short vowels. Our diphthongs, he asserts, are sixteen in number, and the triphthongs three. As the just representation of sounds by letters is a considerable means of attaining a correct pronunciation of the language, these are particulars worthy of attention.

In the portion of the work allotted to the *Accents*, the author deprecates the common use of that word, in lieu of which he proposes the *syllabic emphasis* The accents, he contends, signify the variations with which all syllables are pronounced, and are as commonly used, and as necessary in the proper pronunciation of the English, as they were in that of the Greek and Latin. In this opinion, he follows Mr. Steele, who proved the fact by imitating on a violoncello the tones of our common speech, and ascertained their perfect agreement with the Greek definitions and descriptions of the tones or accents used in uttering that language.

Respecting *Prosody*, Mr. Odell asserts, contrary to the opinion of antient and modern grammarians, that the essence of verse, or the governing principle of rhythm, is not to be found in the length of syllables, but only in their emphases; and he maintains his assertion by shewing that short vowels in the Greek and Latin languages, when before two consonants, or as it is called *in position*, although accordingly accounted long, were in reality still pronounced short. In the scanning of verse, he therefore contends for the using of cadences instead of feet, making the emphatic syllable the first in every cadence. Our Iambic verse, he says, is of various dimensions, from two to six cadences; in which not only bibrachs, but spondees, dactyls, and double pyrrhics also are equalized with the leading Iambic feet, and sometimes a syllable is made to fill a whole cadence. Hence in our common heroic measure we have three different metres, in lines consisting of three, four, or five cadences, exclusive of the occasional Alexandrine, which may consist of four, five, or six.

To

To shew that the antient mode of versification is not impracticable in the English language, the author, in the translation of a Sapphic ode, has given a specimen of the Sapphic verse; also imitations of the versification of two odes of Horace, and specimens of the Homeric rhythmus, which was thought to be inexpressible in English, in the translation of the first 53 verses of Homer's Iliad.

In the prosecution of this work, Mr. Odell has evinced considerable learning and talents: but he professes it to be only an essay, and wishes that some other person better qualified would undertake the subject. It is certainly both curious and important, and it would give us great satisfaction to see it thoroughly investigated. Mr. Odell has meritoriously commenced the discussion, and we should recommend it to him to pursue it.

W.Re-s.

POETRY.

Art. 27. *The Age of Frivolity.* A Poem, addressed to the Fashionable, the Busy, and the Religious World. By Timothy Touch'em. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Williams and Smith. 1807.

No, *Timothy*! indeed you will not *Touch'em*; unless it be to *tickle* them with laughter at your ineffectual attempts to be *cuttingly* satirical. The toll-keepers will not receive a penny less, nor will the Sunday Ordinary lose a single visitor, by your representation of the Cockney's mode of spending the Sabbath:

'Forth from their haunts, array'd in Sunday-dress,
Through ev'ry avenue the thousands press;
Some, in equestrian pomp, bestride the backs
Of broken kneed or broken-winded hacks;
While through each turnpike a long train departs
Of coaches, gigs, and curricles, and carts;
Where closely wedg'd, and jostling side by side,
The swelt'ring gentry take their Sunday ride,
Impatient longing for the cheap regale
Of village beef and pudding, punch and ale;
Where, round the common table, strangers join,
Once in a week, like gentlefolks to dine.
Thither, a few short miles, impell'd along
By many a fretful stamp and lashing thong,
With feeble steps the jaded cattle creep,
And their sad day of rest in labour keep.'

As little will *Fashionable Invalids* be benefited by Mr. Touch'em's languid and sickly satire:

'Sweet summer smiles, and on its balmy wings
Delightful health and rich abundance brings;
All feel its influence, hope and joy distil,
Save Pleasure's train—and they, poor things! are ill.
They have the megrims, vapours, or the spleen;
They are so nervous, grow so pale and lean;

They have a sort of something, somehow got,
Have so much suffer'd from they know not what,
That they must haste to catch the sea side air,
Just when and where such *invalids* repair.
There Pleasure waits, their doctor and their nurse,
To *fill* their time up, and to *drain* their purse.
Now all alert, most rapidly they mend,
Ere mirth grows stale—while money lasts to spend.'

Mr Touch'em seems to be perfectly satisfied with himself, or otherwise he could not have encouraged his rhyming diarrhœa. He modestly indeed prays, in the motto, to be saved "on the *brink* of writing ill:" but we are sorry to inform him that he has completely *tumbled in, head over heels*.

Art. 28. *Three Lyric Odes*, on late celebrated Occasions. By the Rev. William Clubbe, Vicar of Brandeston. 4to. 2s. 6d. Printed at Ipswich.

The first of these odes is devoted to the Victory of the Nile in 1798, the second to the Battle of Trafalgar, and the third is intitled 'Harmony,' addressed 'to Britannia.' So much has been written by various bards on the subjects of the first two of these short odes, that Mr. Clubbe cannot be supposed to have furnished any new idea; but the following stanza on the death of Nelson is well expressed:

'Who but must see with delug'd eye
The matchless Victor of the Main
Upon his native shore again
Of his own victory the victim lie!
Of Heaven perhaps too much we crave
To grant us conquest and our conquerors save.'

In the last ode, the poet, invoking Harmony, calls her 'the choicest gift the *Gods* bestow:' but, however classical polytheism may be, we cannot allow it to be orthodox in a christian divine to avail himself, even in the character of a poet, of the assistance of the Gods.—He reminds his countrymen of the success of a few united Greeks against the vast host of the Persian monarch; and, conceiving that the abilities of Britons, both in the Senate and in the Field, are not inferior to those of the sons of antient Greece, he pronounces that nothing is wanting except *Unanimity* to insure our triumph:

'And doth not Albion boast on land
The valour of the Spartan band?
Doth she not count upon her seas
The equals of Themistocles?
In wisdom do her Statesmen yield
To Grecian Senators the field?
For patriot spirit, is her name
Eclips'd by aught of ancient fame?
Whate'er was valiant, wise or great
In Greece, adorns the British State.

'Blest

'Blest Harmony! such powers unite
Alike in council and in fight;
And soon a Xerxes shall again
Quit in his fishing boat the main;
And lonely wand'ring on the shore
His ruin'd armaments deplore.'

Britannia must hold her head high on this representation of the poet; and, after such a comparison, can her sons despair? Mo-y.

Art. 29. *Poetry, Odes, Prologues, and Epilogues spoken on Public Occasions at Reading School:* to which is added some Account of the Lives of the Rev. Mr. Benwell, and the Rev. Dr. Butt. 8vo. pp. 264. 7s. Boards. Richardson.

'This Collection,' as the preface states, 'consists of Poems spoken at Reading School, since the accession of the present Master in 1781, and is published at the desire of the speakers, who cast a pleasing recollection on those exhibitions which have formed a part of their amusement and instruction.' The writers of the principal part of these poems were the late Mr. Benwell, and the late Dr. Butt; the others named are Mr. Bolland, the late Mr. Seward, and Mr. Pye. The compositions, several of which are in Latin, have various merit, some of them evincing the juvenile age of the writers, while others would do credit to more matured authors. Dr. Valpy seems to have taken great pains with his pupils, and the publication must add to the repute of his seminary.

The life of Mr. Benwell is composed by the Rev. Mr. Kett, and that of Dr. Butt by the editor (Dr. Valpy): to the friends and acquaintance of those amiable and accomplished characters, this part of the work will prove peculiarly interesting, and even the indifferent reader will find himself improved in the perusal of it: the accounts are ably written. W.Re-s.

Art. 30. *Hymns by the late Rev. Joseph Grigg.* 12mo. 6d. Rivingtons, &c.

We knew the merit and the abilities of Mr. Grigg: but they consisted not in the powers of versification. The appearance of these Hymns will prove this fact in a way which the friends of Mr. G. will not hail with satisfaction; and had they been worth publishing, the meanness of their present garb would have equally displeased them. G.2.

NOVEL.

Art. 31. *Memoirs of Bryan Perdue.* By Thomas Holcroft. 12mo. 3 Vols. 15s. Boards. Longman and Co.

It is stated by Mr. Holcroft, in the preface to these volumes, that his object in writing novels has always been to advance some moral purpose: that his *Anna St. Ives* was designed to teach fortitude to females, his *Hugh Trevor* to induce youth to inquire into the morality of a profession before they adopted it for their course in life, and that of the present work to inculcate on legislators and others a consideration of the value of human life, and the moral tendency of our penal laws. For this purpose he depicts a young man of con-

siderable intellectual endowments, but of unrestrained passions; who occasionally commits both good and evil actions; who is finally guilty of a crime that puts his life in danger, but is rescued on a point of law; and who subsequently reforms, and makes amends to mankind for his past misconduct.

Mr. Holcroft's strong manner of writing, in compositions of this nature, and the peculiarity of some of his opinions respecting errors or crimes and punishments, are well known to the public. The tale before us displays both these characteristics of his pen; and we think that it will interest generally, please in many parts, and offend in some; against the vice of gambling in particular, it furnishes many striking admonitions.—With regard to the general theory respecting Punishments, none will dispute that the primary intention of punishment should be reformation, and that no reformation in this world can take place in that man who is sent out of it by the hands of the executioner: but for the prevention of the higher crimes, the most serious forfeiture, that of life, has been decreed by the institutions of society *in terrorem*. The difficulty consists in laying the line of discrimination: a difficulty which perhaps involves the impossibility of guarding against instances of lamentable severity, any otherwise than by the prerogative of mercy which the sovereign possesses. It is easy to imagine such cases as Mr. Holcroft has delineated, though the crime may be more readily exemplified than the amendment; and in all such, *his* termination is much more pleasing and more beneficial than that of the hangman: but general laws are not to be founded on particular facts. G.

POLITICAL.

Art. 32. *Observations addressed to the Public, in particular to the Grand Juries, of these Dominions.* 8vo. pp. 73. 2s. 6d. Rivingtons. 1806.

This writer is of opinion that, in the course of the last fifteen years, a great moral degeneracy has prevailed among the middle and lower orders of the community; and mourning over the lamentable change in appropriate strains, he warmly exhorts all persons of weight and influence to stem the growing torrent. His counsels are well intended, and in general shew his good sense not less than his regard for religion and virtue: but we are sorry to find him discouraging Sunday Schools, and countenancing the vulgar cry against unshackled trade. Jo.

Art. 33. *Advantages of Russia in the present Contest with France.* With a short Description of the Cozacks. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Jordan and Co. 1807.

The gigantic power of France is now in close contact with the gigantic power of Russia, and Europe is looking with anxious expectation to the result of the sanguinary conflict. In opposition to the opinion of many, and to the fears of more, this writer contends for the superior advantages of Russia, and would induce us to hope that the exorbitant domination of France will be curbed by the present warfare in Poland. Much, however, as we wish to see the strides of Bonaparte to universal empire effectually checked, we cannot build

our

our persuasion of the certainty of this event on any of the statements of this pamphlet. Declamations on the abilities of Suwarow, or on the result of the battle of Austerlitz, (here called not a victory, but 'a handsome present from the Cabinet of Austria to the Emperor of the French,') are little suited to the present purpose. We expected to find calculations of the physical strength of the two contending empires; instead of which, we are presented with a display of the loyalty, incorruptibility, and *individual superiority* of the Russian soldier, and with accounts of the value of Calmuck and Cozack tribes as irregular troops. It is hinted, indeed, that Russia is inferior to her adversary in point of revenue; which intimation will no doubt incline the liberal John Bull to accede to a handsome subsidy.

Towards the conclusion, the writer seems to fear, notwithstanding the display of advantages on the part of Russia, that France will succeed in the contest: but, if this should be the case, it must arise, he says, from its being the will of Heaven that Bonaparte should be the scourge of mankind. Thus, if Alexander triumphs, the author will plume himself on his discernment; if Napoleon, he will shelter himself under the decrees of Providence.

Mo-y.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 34. *A View of Religions*, in three Parts; Part I. Containing an Alphabetical Compendium of the Denominations among Christians. Part II. Containing a brief Account of Paganism, Mahomedism, Judaism, and Deism. Part III. Containing a View of the Religions of the different Nations of the World. By Hannah Adams. A new Edition, with Corrections and Additions. To which is prefixed, An Essay on Truth, by Andrew Fuller. 12mo. pp. 500. 6s. Boards. Button. 1805.

It is very natural for a man who has conscientiously devoted himself to the examination of the Scriptures, to suppose that his view of religious truth must be correct; yet, if he reflected that others, who differ from him, may be equally conscientious, and are equally interested with himself in the discovery of truth, he would see reason for abating his self-confidence, and for contemplating his own belief (if we may so express ourselves,) with a kind of scepticism. An Essay on Truth, prefixed to a dictionary of *Religions, or rather to the long catalogue of the sects* which have prevailed in the Christian world, may be well meant, but, by its very position, it seems to proclaim itself a hopeless attempt. Mr. Fuller ventures to reply to the difficult question, What is Truth? and we have no doubt of his having given an honest opinion: but how far he has actually succeeded, his readers must be left to determine. We purpose not to controvert his decisions, yet we beg to suggest to him the propriety of weighing the exact meaning of words, in deciding on the doctrines of Revelation. We must ask whether the phrase *Christ died for us* is precisely equivalent to he 'died as our substitute?' *For* more frequently expresses *in behalf of*, than *in the room of*; the sense affixed to *for* will materially change the view of the subject; and a modest man, after having stated his particular notions of the benefits derived by sinners from the sufferings and death of Christ, would have been restrained

strained from adding. 'If this doctrine be received, Christianity is received: if not, the record which God hath given us of his Son is rejected.'

Mr. F. enumerates *three* grand sources of error: 1. Unconverted Ministers. 2. Nominal Christians. 3. Unsanctified Wisdom found in godly Men:—but such an account will afford little satisfaction to philosophical inquirers.—In stating the reasons why God permits error, Mr. F. is evidently unequal to the task. Who will regard the difficulty as solved by being told that '*false* doctrine is permitted, that it may sweep away hypocritical characters?'—This Essay is indeed calculated only for one particular meridian.

The Dictionary appears to be compiled with much fairness; and it contains a long article on the *Friends* or *Quakers*, on which peculiar care has been bestowed. To such as are desirous of becoming acquainted with the *credenda* of this church, the particulars here inserted will be interesting, especially as they are exhibited for the purpose of obviating the representation given by Mr. Evans in his "Sketch of Denominations," of the similarity of their principles to Socinianism. The evidence of Barclay is quoted, to prove that the Quakers, while they admit the Scriptures to be of divine authority, do not esteem them "the *principal* ground of truth, nor the *primary* rule of faith, but only a *secondary* rule, *subordinate* to the spirit." How the members of that community can subscribe to this tenet, and maintain some of their late proceedings, we confess ourselves to be at a loss to determine. If they hold the Scriptures to be subordinate to the Spirit, how can they justify the excommunication or disownment of those who conscientiously plead the authority of the *inward law of the Spirit*, in support of their conduct and doctrine? We intreat them duly to weigh the difficulty by which they are here embarrassed. The interests of truth and charity equally demand it of this very respectable body, to whose virtues we have often paid the sincerest tribute, and whose liberality we were reluctant to impeach.

In the 2d and 3d parts of this work the reader will meet with curious and amusing accounts of the different religions that now prevail in the several quarters and subdivisions of the globe; and which concludes with stating that the extent of the Christian religion, compared with the parts overspred with *Paganism* and Mahometanism, is as five to twenty-five. We recommend this fact to the serious attention of Mr. Faber; and we request him to consider whether it be in the smallest degree probable that Christianity, which has occupied eighteen hundred years in propagating itself over a *fifth* part of the globe, should require only sixty years for the conversion of the remaining *four-fifths?* Why the Christian religion is still confined to so small a part of the earth, it is difficult to conceive; since it possesses the characters of truth, nations, as they become enlightened, must embrace it: but, looking at the ordinary march of Providence, we have no reason for supposing that a few years only are to elapse before "the earth will be filled with the knowlege of the Lord." Mo.

Art. 35. *Index to the Bible:* in which the various Subjects which occur in the Scriptures are alphabetically arranged: with accu-

rate Referènees to all the Books of the Old and New Testaments, designed to facilitate the study of these invaluable Records. By Joseph Priestley, LL.D. F.R.S. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Johnson.

'The makers of indexes and of dictionaries (says Dr. P.) are never allowed the praise of much *genius*; but these works certainly require the exercise of *judgment*:' he might have added, and of *patience*. This voluminous writer speaks of the present little work as the most laborious that he ever undertook, though he acknowleges that he derived considerable assistance in its compilation from Mr. *Pilkington's Rational Concordance, or Index to the Bible*, printed at Nottingham in 1749. Acquainted with the utility of index-making, as well as with the labour that attends it, we are always inclined to bestow praise on those who condescend in this way to become the finger-posts of literature. The work before us will be found very useful to those who wish to refer to the various subjects of sacred Scripture, and is much more portable than a concordance. It is very probable that many persons, who disapprove of Dr. P. as a commentator, will commend him as an index-compiler; and will wish, as he himself suspects, that he had aimed at nothing higher. **Mo-y.**

Art. 36. *Sermons on various Subjects;* by Alexander Hewat, D.D. Vol. II. 8vo. pp. 447. 7s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

We mentioned the former Volume of Dr. Hewat's Sermons in our number for January 1804, and made sufficient remarks on their characteristic merits, as well as some extracts in exemplification of the Dr.'s manner. On the present occasion, we need only to refer to that article, and state that the subjects of these nineteen discourses are the ensuing:—The folly of distrust in regard to Providence; habitual awe of God; maternal obligations; education of children; education of youth; manlike conduct and character; right use and improvement of old age; mysteries; Christ's rule of equity; Christ's claim to the reward of spotless innocence, and perfect obedience; incredulity of Thomas; rise, progress, and establishment of Christianity; glorifying in the Cross of Christ; obligations on all Christians to live in peace; office and authority of conscience; forgiveness of offences; commemorating Christ's sufferings and death; joys and comforts of a Christian life. **Hi.**

Art. 37. *Further Evidences of the Existence of the Deity.* Intended as an humble Supplement to Archdeacon Paley's Natural Theology. By George Clark. 8vo. 2s. Faulder.

Practical atheism is not uncommon, but we hope that speculative atheism exsists in the mind of very few. It cannot be denied, however, that the latter occasionally occurs, and is even abetted by something in the form of argument: yet that the argument has no real strength has been repeatedly and most satisfactorily demonstrated. Dr. Paley has remarked that, in order to refute the atheist, he would be contented with taking his stand in human anatomy; since the design, contrivance, and adaptation of parts in the animal frame are indisputable proofs of pre-existing and superintending Intelligence. Mr. Clark assumes this ground: but he satisfies himself with resting his proofs of a Deity on *the constitution of the sexes*, which

which manifests *pre-cogitation*, a *previous intention*, and a *pre-ordination*. After having exposed the ridiculous hypothesis of Mirabeau relative to the energies of matter, he observes;

'If we were to allow, for argument's sake, that an animal might have been produced by the mere energies of matter, it will be too much to admit, that an animal with a SEX, could have been so produced; because that circumstance necessarily pre-supposes two things, 1. an increase of the species by generation: and, to that end, 2. the production of another animal of the *same kind*, but of the *other sex*; and these anticipations could exist only with mind or intellect. It would be a contradiction to the plainest dictates of common sense, to say, that they could exist where *design* or *purpose* were not; or, that design or purpose could be, where there was not *mind*, or *intelligence*. And as mind and intelligence can only exist with a *living, sentient agent*, it follows incontestibly, that design, intent, and purpose, were employed in the formation of animals, and that there did previously exist a LIVING, SENTIENT AGENT, or, FIRST DESIGNING CAUSE.'

This argument is conclusive; and it is no small compliment to Mr. Clark to add that he has furnished a Supplement to "the Natural Theology" of Dr. Paley, which that ingenious writer, were he alive, would not object to patronize.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 38. *A Defence of the Slave Trade*, on the Grounds of Humanity, Policy, and Justice. 8vo. 2s. Highley.

A defence of persecution on the grounds of humanity would not be more revolting to common sense, than a defence of the slave-trade on this principle. The history of slavery cannot be the history of human happiness; and when it becomes an article of trade and commerce, it cannot be conducted without considerable cruelty. Writers may endeavour to throw some bright tints over the picture: but, after their most laboured efforts, it must be revolting to the eye of the philanthropist. We are told that the slave-trade prevents a greater evil, viz. murder: but it is difficult to prove this assertion to such an extent as the argument requires. It is more rational to suppose, calculating on the effects of avarice on man, that this trade stimulates the Africans to make war on each other; and that, if Europeans withdrew from this nefarious commerce, a powerful temptation to crime in the negroe princes would cease: but, supposing more cruelty to exist in Africa than we are able to prove, is the slave-trade such a remedy as we should be induced to apply, were all motives of interest out of the question? When the word policy stands coupled with humanity, we have reason for surmising that the latter is not of the true Christian stamp. This writer tells us how well-fed and happy the negroes are in the West Indies: but does this assertion square with the declaration that it is necessary, in order to keep up the population of the blacks, to have a large annual importation from Africa? After so many hundred thousands of negroes have been conveyed from their native land to the West India Islands, had motives of humanity operated as much as a regard to self interest, the

necessity

necessity of a farther importation, we should think, would before this time have been at an end. We would not overlook the interest of the West India planter, but his interest ought not to be promoted by an unjustifiable waste of human life, even in a black skin. Mo-y.

Art. 39. *Substance of the Debates on a Resolution for abolishing the Slave Trade*, &c. which was moved in the House of Commons, 10th June, 1806, and in the House of Lords, 24th June, 1806. With an Appendix, containing Notes and Illustrations. Cr. 8vo. pp. 216. 4s. boards. Phillips and Fardin. 1806.

At length the public has been gratified by the success of the attempt to procure an abolition of the odious traffic in human liberty and happiness; and it will receive with pleasure the present record of the debates in both houses of parliament, which immediately led to the recent ratification of the ministerial plans for accomplishing this laudable design. The speeches appear to be in substance carefully detailed; and the notes afford various interesting exemplifications of the argument. G. 2.

Art. 40. *The genuine Art of Guaging made easy and familiar*, exhibiting all the principal Methods actually practised by the Officers of his Majesty's Revenue of Excise and Customs, also the established Rules for finding the Areas and Contents of Stills, &c. &c. By Peter Jonas, late Supervisor of Excise. 8vo. 9s. boards. Dring and Page, Tooley Street.

The *genuine art of guaging*, as the author calls it, is explained satisfactorily and fully in this treatise: indeed *too fully*, since the bulk of the volume might have been considerably contracted. What necessity was there for making a discourse on decimal fractions, and on square and cube roots, as an introduction to this *genuine art?* Are not these things learnt previously by him who undertakes to make himself master of the science and practice of guaging? With equal reason, the author might have transcribed Euclid's Elements into his treatise. In page 77, he has restricted the meaning of the word parallelogram; and according to him a parallelogram must be a rectangle.

This work, as it must necessarily happen, has excited in our minds but small interest: we have, however, examined several of its rules, and they appear to us sufficiently commodious. The author speaks of Clarke's hydrometer. Is not this instrument, by a late regulation, ordered to be disused, and another substituted in its stead? R.W.

Art. 41. *Public Characters of* 1803, 1804, 1805, and 1806. 8vo. 3 vols 10s. 6d. boards, each. R. Phillips.

In noticing the former volumes of this compilation, we sufficiently pointed out the general objections to which all living biography must be liable, and those in particular to which the present work was exposed, on the score both of selection and of composition. The same remarks apply to the subsequent volumes: but the same recommendations also continue, which seem to insure to the design a degree of public countenance. These recommendations are, its indulgence of a spirit of curiosity which is ever calling for gratification, its supply of

of interesting anecdotes, its occasional delineations of amiable traits and instructive examples, and its record of facts and dates. On these grounds, the publication has claims to patronage; and in the latter point of view, especially, it may supply materials for more complete biography and history: but it must ever be consulted with *grains of allowance*, not only where partiality or hostility is obvious, but even with respect to the total suppression of *disobliging* circumstances. We could point out some instances of *hiatus* of this kind, which leave the chain of events most staringly open.

Art. 42. *A complete Verbal Index to the Plays of Shakspeare*, adapted to all the Editions. Comprehending every Substantive, Adjective, Verb, Participle, and Adverb, used by Shakspeare; with a distinct Reference to every individual Passage in which each Word occurs. By Francis Twiss, Esq. 2 vols. 8vo. pp. 1180. 3l. 3s. boards. Egerton, &c.

If it be drudgery to *compile* an Index, what must be the task of *reviewing* it by an ample verifying examination? We can boast of being equal to the former, but from the latter we shrink with fixed despair. The renowned Jedediah Buxton, of word catching memory, is, alas! no more, and we know not any worthy successor to his fame. Were he living, his talents might, in this industrious age, be made subservient to literature, in index-making, or in index revising; and on the present occasion, we should eagerly have sought his assistance. Seriously, however, the merit of an index can only be ascertained by experience, by a trial nearly as long as that to which Horace would submit an original composition: but the *utility* of such an achievement as that of a verbal index to Shakspeare must be as obvious as its labour; and to Mr. Twiss, for having accomplished this Herculean service, the thanks of the public are due, in a mode in which we trust he will copiously receive them.

Mr. T. justly observes that, by the aid of such an index, many obscure passages in our great dramatic author may be more readily illustrated; and that it will be eminently serviceable even to those who do not study him as a national classic, but 'recur to him as a writer abounding in common places, whose works contain something applicable to the occurrences of almost every hour.' He fairly admits that accuracy constitutes the sole merit of such a work, and that errors can scarcely have been avoided in 'several hundred thousand references:' but he asserts that 'he has spared no pains either in the notation of the words, or in the correction of the press;' and 'to the praise of general correctness he boldly puts in his claim.' The last labours of Mr. Stevens, as an editor of Shakspeare, being given to the world during the progress of this compilation, Mr. Twiss submitted to the duty of collating that edition with the one which he had used; and wherever any deviation in the text, not merely literal, was detected, he has inserted double references: thus adapting his index to every edition of Shakspeare's writings. He has also considered the play of Pericles as the composition of our celebrated bard, on the authority of Mr. Malone and Mr. Stevens, and has indexed it accordingly.—The reader is not to expect from the phrase in the title page, *complete verbal index*, that he will here find a reference to every word used

used in Shakspeare, but must attend to the restrictive denominations of words which follow in the title. Pronouns, for instance, are excluded, and therefore he must not seek for the constantly recurring monosyllables, *I, thou, he, we, you, they*, &c.—nor for all the host of prepositions, conjunctions, relatives, articles, &c.

In the year 1790, the late Mr. Ayscough published an index to *passages* and words in Shakspeare, but it was more particularly constructed for the edition to which it was then appended. We gave an account of it in our 4th vol. N. S. p. 421. and not only made some remarks on the nature of the undertaking which will apply to Mr. Twiss's production, but produced a few *samples of criticism*, which perhaps we might parallel on this occasion: but, if any circumstances can make *Every Gentleman his own Reviewer*, this is one of them. G. 2.

Art. 43. *Memoirs of the Life of Horatio Lord Viscount Nelson*, &c. &c. with the Account of the last Honors paid to his Remains by a grateful Country, &c. By J. Hardy, Esq. 12mo 1s. Crosby and Co.

A concise and cheap compilement, which may serve for the more *ordinary* purposes of circulating the records of Nelson's great deeds, but puffed with claims to which it is not intitled, and intended to be sanctioned by a name which may be mistaken for that of the hero's Captain, and which we suspect to be only *assumed* for that purpose. Do

SINGLE SERMON.

Art. 44. *The Duty of Stedfastness in Church Communion.* By Edward Pearson, B D. Rector of Rempstone, Nottinghamshire. 12mo. 6d. Hatchard.

Though the antient Jews occasionally yielded to that intercommunity of worship which was prevalent among idolaters, it was inconsistent with their faith in Jehovah as the only true God, and is justly reprobated by the prophet. Jehovah and Baal could not be both acknowleged, in the same manner as a Gentile might, without any violence offered to his creed, present offerings to Minerva at Athens, and to Jupiter Capitolinus at Rome. Mr. Pearson supposes that no more fellowship ought to subsist between the Protestant Established and the Protestant Non established Churches of this country, than between the communions of Jehovah and Baal; and he severely reprobates those who attend the service of the Church on one part of the Sunday, and that of the Meeting-house on the other. He considers these accommodating Christians as "halting between two opinions," (text 1 Kings xviii 21) and seriously urges them to reflect on the impropriety of their conduct. He charges them with violating the unity of the Church, with the sin of schism, and with pronouncing the sentence of their own condemnation. Assuming, perhaps, a loftier attitude than becomes a Protestant, he reminds the Meeting-house frequenter that, 'in the most important concern possible, he gives up a *certainty* for an *uncertainty*;' that 'dissenters in general are not as safe in separating from the Church of England as the Church of England from the Church of Rome;'—and that we have ground from Scripture for supposing that there is an efficacy in the offices of religion, when they are administered by persons who are duly authorized to administer them, which they have not when administered

ministered by others.' The persons, against whom the preacher directs his discourse, may say that the principles of both churches are nearly the same; and that they only wish to enjoy the benefits of two modes of worship both alike Christian, and to cherish a liberal, in opposition to a party spirit.—We shall not enter into any argument with Mr P.: but we think that he has exposed himself to some sharp animadversions; and that he will be laughed at for credulity, when he gravely states, on the report of a Mr. Somebody, that a Meeting house minister lately prayed that "it would please God to rain down bricks and mortar from heaven, with which Meeting houses might be built." Could not Mr. P *smell a hoax?*

CORRESPONDENCE.

E N T. of Kennington obligingly communicates some remarks on a passage in Massinger, which attracted our notice in reviewing Mr. Gifford's late edition of that author. (See Rev. for January, p. 11.) With regard to the term *Galley-foist*, he says, he has in his possession a very scarce large view of London, well engraved by Nicholas John Visscher, who flourished in 1600, with the principal buildings, &c. named in it; and which contains a large pleasure-boat, with 3 or 4 masts, much ornamented, and fitted up seemingly for parties of pleasure, called "*the Galley fuste.*" A naval friend, he informs us, describes it as "a ship-rigg'd vessel, with a jigger-mast abaft to set the mizen on;" and our correspondent adds that 'it certainly was not a Lord Mayor's Barge, as described by Mr. Gifford, as it stands very high out of the water, and is pierced for several Guns.'—E.N.T. then enters into some etymological conjectures, which we suspect to be erroneous; and we have now to subjoin, that our old friend, N. Bailey, in his valuable Etymological English Dictionary, (which we before unaccountably omitted to consult,) inserts the word *Foist*, and calls it "*a pinnace, or small ship, with sails or oars.*"—These concurring evidences seem to set the question at rest with regard to the meaning of the term *Galley foist:—Bullions*, and *Quirpo* or *Cuerpo*, (see also Bailey) we have already explained:—so that this passage in Massinger, and the division of a beau's time in the days of that poet, may now be fully understood.

W. S. refers to an Extract from a book which we have not now at hand.

Our correspondent at Emanuel College is under a mistake. We have never seen a 2d Edition of the work which he mentions.

'A *very* warm admirer' almost scorches us with his flaming praise: but we must coldly inform him, that such publications as that which is the object of his warmest solicitude do not attract our attention.

*** In the APPENDIX to Vol. LI. of the Monthly Review, which was published with the last Number, P. 457. l. 1. for 'there,' r. *here*. P. 507. l. 11. after 'lovers,' add *of*. P. 514. l. 12. for 'powers,' r. *power*.

In the No. for January, P. 63. l. 26. for 'and indeed,' r. *indeed, and*. P. 90. l. 17. for 'three into,' r. *into three*.

184, 223.

Errors, pp. 145, 150, 169, 199, 222, 224.